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THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

WITH CHAPTERS ON THE TEACHING OF CIVICS
A MANUAL OF METHOD FOR ELEMENTARY AND JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

BY

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PREFACE

In this volume the author presents a carefully planned and detailed study of the important problems that arise in teaching history, civics, and current social events in the elementary grades as well as in the junior high school. Throughout this book, these three subjects are regarded as salient elements of a larger subject, the social studies.

The Teaching of History seeks to evolve a system of teaching the social environment that will contribute significantly towards the development of civic-mindedness in young people. This objective, the development of civic intelligence that may prompt socialized behavior, is consistently employed as the standard that determines the content of the book, the character of the discussions, and the color of the conclusions.

The book consists of five parts. Part I studies the meanings of history and their implications for methods of teaching. The biographical, the chronological, the political, the economic, and the social conceptions of history are analyzed, evaluated, and applied to teaching practices.

A critical presentation of the disciplinary values of history is made in Part II. Here the teacher meets such problems as: how can history train in observation, imagination and thinking; the teaching practices that make history real to young minds; training the young mind to think through topical organization, through the causal relations, through tracing geographic influences, and through well planned reviews. This section is replete with helpful illustrations.

Every principle is fully illustrated by reference to classroom situations. The concluding chapter stresses the inspirational values of history and includes a discussion of such problems as Americanization and the development of patriotism.

Part III is devoted to a critical study of the course in history and civics. The principles of curriculum-making in history are fully set forth and illustrated, the trend of history courses is traced, and the content of the course for the first six years and for the junior high school is indicated. In addition, the following questions are included: Shall world history be taught? Can history be taught "backward"? Shall separate courses in history, civics, geography, and industry, give way to a single course in social studies? How shall history be graded? How much of the "truth" should be taught in history?

The problems of methods of teaching are presented in Part IV. Typical of those included are: the types of recitation, problem and project teaching, how to insure retention of knowledge, socialization of instruction, types of study lessons, evaluation of textbooks, types of outlines, collateral readings, the kind of military history to teach and a plan of evaluating one's own teaching of history.

A special feature of this section is the analysis of modes of testing pupils. The new-type tests are carefully elaborated, and a very definite technique is presented to help teachers formulate effective tests that really measure pupil achievement. A study of standardized tests in history and civics concludes Part IV.

The final section, Part V, concerns itself exclusively with the problems of course of study and methods of teaching civics. Here civics is regarded as the study of processes of living together. Throughout the emphasis is laid on the functional aspects of civics and on means of securing maximum pupil participation in civic activities.

The last decade has surely taught us that the complicated business of living together is perhaps the most important single thing that the school must teach its children. But teaching youth how to live together is no less intricate than actually living together. Here is the professional task that calls for every device of the teacher's art. This book was born of the conviction that the social sciences are destined to play an ever increasingly significant rôle in contemporary life.

Throughout his work the author has sought to introduce certain definite characteristics. These are now set forth:

First, the studies are inclusive. Every important question that arises in the teaching of history and civics in the first nine years has been incorporated. Although the confines of a single book preclude completeness of discussion of every question, the more important problems are always treated fully. To attain inclusiveness and completeness, the author has had recourse to tabulations and parallel-column contrasts. These devices are used in presenting problem and project teaching (pages 72–96); the junior-high-school course of study (pages 171–172); types of textbooks (page 230); how to judge a textbook (pages 231–233); the aims of supplementary reading and how to attain them (pages 234–236); criteria of an effective test (pages 270–272); courses of study in civics (pages 307–310). It is hoped that this type of presentation will achieve economy of time for the reader.

Second, current problems in the teaching of history and civics are constantly stressed. In history, more than in most other subjects, changes in social life necessitate serious changes in curriculum and method. Society was shaken to the roots by the World War and is being challenged by many complicated post-war problems. The attempt to adjust the curriculum to the new order gives more than passing significance to such questions as: shall we continue to

teach the history of the United States without an adequate background of world history? Shall we continue to teach history as an independent subject or shall we teach history, geography, and civics as one subject through a series of important problems? How may life situations be utilized in the teaching of history? How shall we test the results of instruction? Not only are these questions discussed fully, but the issues which they raise are carefully evaluated.

Third, the text gives an adequate theoretical basis for its practical program. Methods of teaching are merely modes of procedure. To present method without psychological sanction is to invite blind imitation by teachers. Every suggested practice is therefore justified by reference to established pedagogic principles, or accepted interpretations of history. For this reason, time is given to such problems as the philosophy of history; the meanings of history and their implications for teaching (Chapter I); principles underlying curriculum-making in the social sciences (Chapters XI, XII, and XIII); the psychology of imagination and thinking (pages 30–34; 38–43; 56–62); the theory of the new-type test and the standardized achievement tests (Chapters XVI–XVII); the meaning of gradation (pages 155–160). Teaching procedure must never degenerate into mere gesture. It must spring from genuine conviction.

Fourth, theory is always applied. Failure to apply psychological principles leaves teaching on the old basis of rule of thumb. Apply psychological theory to actual teaching, and at once, meaning is read into it and light is thrown on classroom situations. The model lessons, the suggested courses of study, the various modes of approach, the lists of means of securing pupil participation are a few of the ways in which the text tries to apply theory to practice. In the discussion of recitations, every type of recitation is fully

illustrated by reference to actual classroom experience; in the analysis of the new type test, numerous specimen questions are given for each form of test; the causal relationships of history are shown in numerous lessons that have been taught to pupils (pages 65–69, 76–81, 83–85, 96–98 and all of Chapters XIV and XV).

Fifth, the text is definite in its suggestions but avoids being dogmatic. Although specific types of recitations are developed (Chapter XIV), and precise directions are given to guide the teacher in the use of the map (pages 45–52), and definite content is proposed for each cycle of grades, no suggested practice is ever formalized. The teacher is given definite programs of classroom procedure but never without full exposition of the underlying theories which give them sanction. Nor are methods of teaching set forth without modes of adapting them to meet varying conditions of particular classes.

Sixth, the needs of the junior high school are adequately recognized. Too often communities have introduced junior high schools without formulating clearly the specific ends to be attained. The result is precisely what one would expect: much footless teaching and feverish search for curriculum material. The text recognizes this weak spot in modern school organization. It distinguishes very definitely the methods of teaching in the junior high school from those of the elementary grades (pages 229–237; 197–206; 208–217); it offers a very specific course of study in civics, history, geography, ethics, and social hygiene for the three years preceding the secondary school (pages 165–185). The junior high school program is based on a definite philosophy of the junior high schools.

Seventh, numerous lessons, in the form in which they worked themselves out in the classroom, are used to illustrate various teaching practices that are recommended. The teacher confronted by a group frequently too large and

ill graded and laboring under adverse conditions that cannot be rectified at will, invariably applies the pragmatic test to all new methods; can they be applied, under existing conditions, to classroom teaching? For illustrations the reader is referred to the lessons on typical military events (pages 238–239); a project lesson (pages 43–44); a problem lesson (pages 96–97; 196–198; 200–203); study lessons (pages 208–215). Reference to the following lessons, will, it is hoped, be found especially helpful: reviews (pages 91–102); main provisions of the Constitution (pages 83–84); the history of immigration (pages 148–149); the military plan of the Civil War and of the Revolutionary War (pages 64; 222; 195–196) the departments of local government (pages 316–318). In analyzing these lessons the reader may have the assurance that they have stood the acid test of classroom use.

Eighth, the needs of the supervisor have not been overlooked. Problems concerned with the organization of the course of study (Chapters XI–XIII), the evaluation of a teacher's performance (pages 249–250), formulation of standards for the selection of textbooks (pages 231–236), quantitative measurement of the results of instruction (Chapters XVI and XVII), the use of standardized tests in the supervision and improvement of instruction (pages 274–277; 288–293)—these concerns of the supervisor are given ample recognition.

Ninth, the book is planned to serve as a helpful teaching instrument in teacher-training courses. It addresses itself to the prospective teacher as well as to the teacher in service. It seeks to stimulate further study and professional-mindedness. Problems for study and discussion are given as each important phase of the subject is rounded out. The annotation and classification of the bibliography will in all probability enhance the usefulness of the list of books.

Here are set forth the hopes which the author sought to realize. How well he has succeeded he must leave to the judgment of his readers.

The author is indebted to the many teachers whose classroom hospitality he enjoyed and whose teaching revealed many of the helpful suggestions found in his pages. He is especially grateful to his colleague, Oscar Janowsky, and to Howard C. Hill of the University of Chicago High School for critical reading of the manuscript. Special acknowledgment is here made to the publishers who gave ready consent to the reproduction of sections of standardized tests. Specific reference to each of them is made in Chapter XVII in the discussion of each of the tests.

P. K.

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PART I

THE MEANING OF HISTORY AND ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING

THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

CHAPTER I

THE MEANING OF HISTORY

With greater justification than ever does history, today, challenge the attention of schoolmen. And this challenge is only an indication of the intense quickening of interest in all the social sciences. The World War shook society to its foundations. It was expected that the period of reconstruction would necessarily bring political unrest and economic upheaval. But it was soon clearly manifest that because of the magnitude of the conflict, the postwar decade would be less a period of reconstruction and more a period of construction. Mankind is concerning itself rather with securing stronger guaranties of life and liberty than with the mere rebuilding of the old order. Society is staggered as it takes stock of the awful price it paid for its latest step toward democracy. Discontent is the inevitable accompaniment of progress purchased so dearly. Democracies, as well as monarchies, must go through a period of insecurity until calmer counsel prevails and time gives a truer perspective to the changes wrought. The social sciences—economics, sociology, government, and history—which study social organization must contribute guiding principles in this period of readjustment. We have renewed our hope that the content of history "which seemed to be graven forever on the stone and bronze of

the past will return to life and leap into movement, bringing vaster and more courageous counsels." [1]

Schoolmen realize, as never before, that the social studies differ from the other subjects in the curriculum because of their content, not because of their aim, for all subjects must be guided and quickened by the same purpose, the molding of a socially minded citizenry. They see with startling clearness the fallacy that native-born children are in less urgent need of these social studies than their immigrant classmates. Not until we have reproduced in the minds of youth the mind of the race, not until we have taken our boys and girls through the successive stages in our economic, social, political, religious, and ethical evolution, will they understand the society in which they live. Not until then should they be permitted to inherit their sacred trust—the shaping of the social order for the coming generation. The teacher of history and government has a task pregnant with social responsibilities.

We must begin with a clear understanding of the meaning of history. Students of its philosophy, viewing it from different angles, have found a wide range of variability in its content and social function. Methods of teaching history, the organization of historical data, and the spirit of instruction must, in the final analysis, all be controlled by the teachers' conviction of the final function of history.

Interpretations of history are many. The most important of these conceptions must be critically analyzed in order to trace their influence on curricula and methods of teaching.

The Biographical Conception of History

Carlyle gave currency and prestige to the "Great Man" conception of history. He teaches that Man is the noblest

[1] Maurice Maeterlinck, quoted in James Harvey Robinson, *The New History*, p. 135.

work of God, sent to stir his own kind to noble and yet nobler effort and to kindle the divine spark of enthusiasm for human progress. To him, history is only the biographies of these leaders, writ large. Reduce your history to the lowest terms, says he, and you have the story of the lives of a few great men and women.

Values of Biographical Conception for Method of Teaching.—Teachers find the biographical approach to history helpful in many ways.

1. Youth is the period of hero worship. A child constantly identifies himself with commanding personalities, real or fictitious. He lives in their light, and they shape his conduct and his ambitions.

2. The study of progress, however logically the events may be grouped, is never as real and as concrete to a child as the study of a real person. The biography seems a living embodiment of the age, its customs, its happenings, its spirit. Bible stories, despite their foreign background, engage his attention because they develop around people and thus make the past as real as the living present.

3. In a biographical development of history, the individual becomes a type of his age. In him one sees not only the events of an epoch, but the national hopes of a people, its struggles, sacrifices, sorrows, and joys. Thus all of mankind expresses itself in man. In this way the child is given a cross section of an historical period, not only with economy of time, but with so great a variety of associations that vividness of impression, clarity of comprehension, and verisimilitude are assured.

Limitations of Biographical Presentation.—But there are shortcomings in the biographical conception of history.

1. It gives the child an exaggerated view of the individual. A movement is bigger than the individual who expresses it. No priest is greater than the religion he represents. No biography should be so taught that the movement of

which it is part is subordinated to the life story of the individual.

2. It must be remembered that a typical person may not be interesting to the child; an interesting person may not be typical of the time. In a biographical presentation certain individuals may be omitted or slighted. The man of action, the soldier or the statesman, is likely to be stressed, rather than the thinker, the inventor or the scientist, the dreamer or the singer. Our history must tell of glories, other than those of the battlefield, and of victories, other than those of arms.

3. Another disadvantage of an exclusively biographical presentation of history is the inability to interpret all events in terms of a human life. Much in an individual's biography may have little relation to the vital currents of events of his day. So, too, a historic event may not be intimately related with the life of any one person. States' rights and the Stamp Act are important in American history because a large group of people, rather than any one person, were carried away by a conviction.

4. It is urged by some that certain lives, fully taught, may arouse moral conflicts in the minds of youth. We shall discuss the issue here involved more fully in a later connection but we must observe, in passing, that the facts of history, *per se*, do not guarantee moral conduct. Unless we develop in children a moral basis and the power of making judgments, history can never have a determining effect upon the conduct of youth.

Application of Biographical Conception to the Teaching of History.—(1) The biographical conception of history, despite its inherent limitations, carries a significant lesson for the teacher of history. It indicates that no period or movement is taught fully without the vivid presentation of its great biographies. The children who know the life of Henry Ward Beecher have a richer understanding of the

issues involved in the slavery question. Similarly, those who study the lives of Hamilton and Jefferson obtain a more thorough grasp of the contending political and economic theories of the Federalist and Whig parties. The life of Lincoln or of Franklin gives, free from any didactic taint, a picture of the people, the customs, and the spirit of the times in which each lived. After a period has been taught it is well to spend a lesson or two on the outstanding biographies. This suggestion makes for more effective teaching of history in all grades and to all children.

(2) A second vital application follows the first. Excellent reviews can be evolved in history through biographical studies. If *review* means a new view, a reorganization, an added interpretation of old data, then the study of outstanding figures in any age must afford an excellent review.

(3) Through biographical studies it is possible to give a bird's-eye view of a great stretch of years. Excellent summaries that are not devoid of life can be given of the entire field of history.

Let us assume that a teacher wishes to give a general view of American history before inviting the class to study in detail the important divisions, that is, the period of discovery, or exploration, and of early colonization. A teacher of an Americanization class consisting of adult foreigners cannot follow the usual textbook treatment of American history. Both these teachers may meet their problem by a study of carefully selected typical biographies. Thus, around Columbus is told the lure of the Orient, the trade with India and Cathay, the search for an all-water route and the discovery of the New World. The life of Hendrick Hudson or of any of the well-known explorers serves as a vehicle for the story of the explorations of the New World and the search for gold, or land, or new routes, or opportunities for missionary service. The biographies of Captain John Smith and William Penn help the teacher to

develop the story of early colonization, the reasons that impelled men to leave Europe, the struggles of the pioneer and the means of achieving victory over nature's forces. The life of Benjamin Franklin becomes a convenient center around which we group the facts of life in the colonies, the relation between French and English colonies and the outbreak of the Revolutionary War. Washington is the next figure. The story of his life teaches the causes of the war for independence, the struggle for freedom and the establishment of the new nation dedicated to the principles of representative government. In this way the story of the United States is completed through the study of the lives of commanding figures. Surely these biographical studies are convenient and effective means of giving a rapid and spirited view of the whole field of history. World history or ancient history can be taught with similar economy and without sacrificing either vividness of impressions or the spirit of an age.

History as a Record of the Past

To many, history is essentially a chronological record of the past. All that is interesting and significant in past ages must be recorded for study to-day. History is the Bible of society, in which the chronicler writes his story just as the head of the family makes his entries of the births and marriages and deaths in the family Bible.

Pedagogical Application of Record Conception.—However evolutionary our conception of history, a knowledge of the past is necessary. Certain events, names, dates, and places will always hold a sacred place in the history of a people. Everybody must know these. Thus, the Declaration of Independence, the discovery of America, Columbus, Jefferson, Webster, 1783, Yorktown, or the Pilgrims, must be familiar to every child who leaves our elementary schools. True, one may do the day's task without this knowledge

but he cannot live the life of an American without having felt the thrill of the story associated with each of these.

What application can the teacher make of this conception of history? If a knowledge of the past is necessary for its own sake, then the teacher must, at the end of each week's lessons in history, ask himself, "What is the irreducible minimum of dates, names, places, facts and events which these children must retain for intelligent citizenship?" These facts should be subjected to vigorous and frequent drill until they become habit. Make perception cards showing *1789; Fulton; Author of Declaration of Independence; Gettysburg, when?; Uncle Tom's Cabin, who?; Château Thierry, when?; Fourteen Points, whose?; Manila Bay, Battle of, who? when?; Congress for Conservation of Resources, when? by whom? objects?* Each week add to the stock of cards of the preceding week. Every week, devote three or four drill periods of four minutes each, to rapid-fire questions and answers, using these cards as if they contained phonograms or items in the multiplication tables. These drills should be continued until there is instantaneous recognition and apparent permanent fixation. Each succeeding week brings new cards just as each succeeding drill shows the advisability of eliminating certain of the well-known cards.

Dangers in Overemphasizing the Past.—In teaching the past, a discriminating selection must be exercised. To exaggerate the past leads to the study of what may be useless; it gives a wrong perspective; it neglects the dynamic aspect of what has been. The past is important only in so far as it indicates the path of progress. The child must be shown that the past consists of forward steps rather than of final stages. We try to arouse an intense admiration for the spirit of '76 only because the child is to look forward from it to the truer and larger liberties of to-day and to-morrow. We glory in the freedom of

religious worship guaranteed by the Constitution in 1789 because of the spirit of greater toleration that we enjoy to-day. To present the past without a forward vision is to discount the future.

Evolutionary Conceptions of History

It is obvious that if history is to achieve its socializing function, it must do more than study the dramatic incidents of the past or explain the growth of political institutions. History, like geography or civics, must be regarded as a study of the present. Geography attempts to explain present life as the product of the physical forces of nature. History is also a study of the present; it must give the student the evolutionary point of view; it must lead him to a better understanding of his social environment by revealing to him the stages by which it came to be. History is therefore a study of man and all his achievements in the process of growth. Its content is neither dead nor fixed but changing to explain the ever changing problems of succeeding ages.

The evolutionary conceptions of history may readily be grouped under three heads: history as *political evolution;* history as *economic evolution;* and history as *evolution of civilization.*[2]

History as Political Evolution.—The political conception, popularized by the English historian, Freeman, is explained by his oft-quoted, "History is past politics." History concerns itself with the development of political institutions and modes of political control. History must therefore emphasize the origin of the state, the struggle for control, the rise and growth of parties, fundamental prin-

[2] It must not be assumed that the present developed in this order. These conceptions of history are treated in this sequence, because early books seemed to be distinctly political. Then came texts that showed the economic interpretation and finally those that give the story of the evolution of all aspects of life.

ciples of contending political schools, and the final evolution of present political institutions.

This political conception is a transition from the simple interpretation of history as mere record to the more modern view, the story of the evolution of society. The strength of the political conception lies in its forward tendency, its attempt to explain present political life. Its limitations, however, lie in its disproportionate emphasis on political life. The student looks upon political thought and political changes as the causes of economic effects and fails, in that measure, to understand the extent to which political demands are conditioned by social and economic needs. The influence of the political interpretation of history on methods of teaching will be discussed in a later part of this chapter.

History as Economic Evolution.—The economic interpretation of history, popularized by Karl Marx, regards economic need as the spring of all social conduct. History must give the story of economic development. It must tell the modes of life in each stage in the economic progress of man; it must stress the processes in industry and commerce and their human cost. Similarly, it is argued, the decline of the domestic system, the rise and growth of factories and factory towns, the place of women and children in industry, the evolution of the wage system, factory conditions, the origin and growth of labor unions, social legislation—these must be the rational materials of history, for economic need creates war and dictates peace, determines political principles and conditions the development not only of science and art, but of our very ideals of religion and conduct.

"History as now taught is sadly out of touch with modern progress," says Robinson.[3] "What we want to teach

[3] James Harvey Robinson, *op. cit.*

is the advancement of man through his labors, not through his fighting spirit. Political history gives the student a false impression and drives out of the mind that industry is the foundation for all advance and that political and national affairs are based on the industrial progress of any nation. As soon as boys and girls are brought to look upon labor as something worth study, we will have more competent men and women."

History as Evolution of Civilization.—History as economic evolution is effectively refuted by those who widen its scope to include all the vital aspects of civilization.

History must give us a bird's-eye view of all that has produced our science, our art, our economic status, our religious and moral outlook. History must trace for the child the growth of religious toleration, of freedom of speech and press, of representative government, of democratic institutions, of universal suffrage, of free and compulsory education, of social and humane legislation. History, which gives the pupils this panorama of the ages, attains its full dignity as an instrument of socialization, for only then does it really humanize them.

Pedagogical Applications of Evolutionary Conceptions of History.—1. *Give a standard for determining content.* The evolutionary interpretations have a determining effect upon teaching for they influence the content of the curriculum. A few illustrations may be helpful.

The content of American history shows marked variability depending on the teacher and the textbook assigned. These variations will persist until there is formulated a definite standard in terms of which one may distinguish real historical data from mere chronological records of the past devoid of social significance. The evolutionary conceptions of history offer such a practical standard. They teach very clearly that such facts as do not give the pupil a clearer understanding of present life and a deeper insight

into the forces which have produced present civilization must not be part of the course of study. The teacher of history must ever ask, "Am I giving these young minds a better grasp of the institutional life to which they must adjust themselves?" A negative answer dictates ruthless elimination of the material subjected to this test. An affirmative answer calls for greater thoroughness of treatment and added emphasis of underlying principles because, clearly, the teacher has found subject matter that develops social-mindedness.

Shall we require children to know that the Pilgrim Fathers left England for Holland and Holland for England in quest of a haven of religious toleration? Are these facts to be left, as they are usually presented in so many textbooks, a string of unrelated details? But, if through skillful questioning, children can be led to draw the inference that only spiritually minded people possessed of no little courage will make such sacrifice, then do they understand the spirit of the founders of this nation. Such facts as *1619, Mayflower, 105 people, a child was born in the course of the voyage, landed at Plymouth Rock, drew up a compact, faced starvation, fight with Indians, rigors of a New England winter, insufficient clothing and shelter* are not really history judged by the standard just formulated. The name of the vessel, the birth of the child, the number on board ship and the landing at Plymouth Rock have no determining influence on the development of American life and institutions. The most vital fact in this array of data is the compact, drawn up by the voyagers, designating those in whom authority is vested and basing this authority on the consent of the governed. Here we have the seeds of democracy sown before foot is placed on American soil. Unless the stories of the struggle with Indians, the facing of starvation and disease and the soul-taxing privations strengthen in the child's mind the im-

pression of the spirituality of these people, these facts are not worth teaching.

To group under one heading, *1619: First slaves imported, Virginians gave 100 lb. of tobacco for a wife, First Colonial Assembly,* is evidence of a sad lack of historical judgment. The first of these three facts is important only for its later influence on our national life. Children must therefore be told briefly why such a fact is presented for their study. The second, an anecdote, must not be associated with the other events. The third statement is of vital import, for here again we have the beginnings of that government which derives its authority from the consent of the governed. Through explanations, questions, dramatization, assigned readings, the social significance of this First Colonial Assembly must be taken out of the past and be turned into a living fact of the present.

Shall we teach the Battle of Bunker Hill, the Results of the French and Indian War, the Explorations of the Cabots and De Soto? Let us apply the standard and abide by the result. As a military event, the Battle of Bunker Hill has little significance. As an evidence of the spirit of revolt, of determination to die that others may live, it is of undisputed social worth. Here we see a handful of untrained civilians, unarmed, facing the trained and equipped military forces of England because a principle was at stake. Of such stuff is victory made. The explorations referred to and the results of the French and Indian War, help to explain why so much of Canada is French in language and culture but English in political outlook. To teach a military event without its social significance is to omit its most important aspect and leave the lesson without its rational justification.

Record history is exclusively of the past; it is cold and static; it constitutes the study of social archæology. Evolutionary history is of the present; it deals with life and

progress; it explains what is in terms of what has been. The child studying record history must rely on mechanical memory for chronology is the guiding principle of organization. Evolutionary history challenges thought. The logic of events, cause and effect relations, must ever be traced; the rationale of life must always be discovered.

2. *History must try to begin with present to explain the present.* The evolutionary conception of history does more than supply a standard for selecting the content of history. It demands that real history, vital history, begin in the present. We saw that unless the history we teach explains our present-day institutions to our pupils, it fails utterly. But history that does not begin with the present may not arouse interest in the present. It is well, when possible, to plan the approach to a lesson so that modern problems —whether social, economic, ethical, religious or educational —introduce the topic of the past. Let us illustrate:

The causes of the War of 1812 were to be taught to a seventh-year class. The all-absorbing topic of the day, 1915, the relation of the United States to the belligerents in the Great War, was made the starting point. Extracts from President Wilson's appeal to citizens to maintain strict neutrality towards all belligerents were read: "maintain strict neutrality . . . be neutral in thought, in speech as well as in action." What is meant by neutrality? neutrals? belligerents? The indistinct ideas of the children, supplemented by the dictionary definitions, made a working basis for the lesson. The teacher's questions led to a clearer formulation of ideas and enabled the class to answer the questions: "Who were the belligerents? the neutrals?"

The pivotal question was now asked, "Can the people of a neutral nation cut off entirely their relations with all belligerents?" The class readily concluded that they could but that such procedure was not advisable. "The neutral people would lose their trade. The neutrals would suffer

if they could not buy necessary things which they used to purchase from the belligerents. The neutrals have property in belligerent countries." These were some of the reasons advanced by the pupils as the teacher questioned further along this line of thought.

The next step in the lesson was introduced by the question: "What right do neutrals maintain therefore?" The answers that the children gave were formulated and summarized on the blackboard:

1. The right of trading with any country unless its ports are blockaded or the trade is in contraband goods.
2. The freedom of the seas.
3. Ships not in the actual fighting area must not be molested.
4. Helping neither side with money or men.

"How may a nation violate neutrality?" "How may a belligerent nation draw a neutral nation into war against it?" "How were we maintaining our neutrality towards Germany?" "How did Germany infringe on our rights as a neutral?" "How did we strive to maintain our neutrality toward England prior to the War of 1812?" "How did England violate our rights?" "What course of action was left us?" The last three questions were answered after careful reading of the textbook and of reports which specially assigned pupils brought to class after consulting fuller texts. Such a lesson gives a better understanding of present problems; it directs reading on current events; it develops an intelligent interest in the affairs of the day; it makes the past glow with meaning; it is an instrument for stimulating thought and encouraging free expression of ideas.

Another illustration may clinch the point in question. The topic of the lesson was, "Washington and the Founding of the New Nation." The teacher sought to emphasize that the great problems of Washington's administration

were concerned with the establishment of a new nation. To bring these difficulties clearly before the children, the question was asked, "What problems would you and your friends have if you attempted to found a new club?" The teacher obtained the following answers from the pupils:

1. Money is needed to purchase supplies, pay room rent to the social center, etc.
2. Disorder in the club for the "new members wouldn't know how to behave in a club"; "They wouldn't obey the president."
3. Other clubs would not respect us. "They wouldn't invite us to their meetings"; "They wouldn't accept our challenges," etc.
4. Difficulty in getting new members. "If we invited anyone to join our club, he might say he would rather join one of the other clubs for the new club might soon break up."

"See the difficulties a small club would have," the teacher continues. "What problems do you think Washington had to face, organizing a new club, a nation of millions?" The children reasoned by analogy and listed the following after their language was modified or corrected by the teacher:

1. Lack of money.
2. Authority of new government not understood.
3. Difficulty with other nations who did not respect the new republic.
4. Lack of confidence in the new nation, hence no credit.

"How did Washington meet these problems?" was the next inevitable question. Search for his solution of the financial problem led the children to gather data about the Hamiltonian financial policy. In similar manner, all the important facts of the initial administration were found and grouped under each of these four difficulties. The class was alive, seeking facts and solutions. The past was quickened by reference to the present; the conception of present-day life was enriched by the knowledge of the forces of the past which produced it.

Remoteness in Time and Its Relation to Interest.—It must ever be borne in mind that the present is not necessarily vital to children, merely because it is the present, nor is the past, merely because it is the past, without compelling significance for them. Our pupils are intensely interested in Ponce de Leon, in Captain John Smith, in the Indians—in the heroes of the romance of the race. They are often indifferent to the part the Monroe Doctrine plays in our present foreign relations, the movement of conservation launched by Roosevelt, the questions of tariff, the entrance of the United States into an association of nations. Remoteness of time is no measure of interest. Our ability *to relate the content of history to the present interests of children, to interpret it in the light of their present outlook or present needs* will determine the intensity of the response which we can stimulate. The growing child brings us a stock of unsatisfied instincts, interests, and capacities. Can history satisfy these? Can it invest them? Only in that measure in which history can utilize this stock of impulses will it arouse vital reactions that make for mental and spiritual development.

Which of These Interpretations of History Shall We Select?

Our discussion shows us that history must be regarded as biographical data translated into terms of national development; as important chronology; as the story of political development; as economic causes of progressive changes that constitute the growth of a people; and finally, as the cross section of the evolution of civilization. Which of these interpretations shall we accept as the final explanation of history? This question, frequently asked, is never satisfactorily answered because it is misleading. Each of these conceptions of history gives one aspect of the story of the human race. History, in one sense, is therefore

the composite of all these conceptions; in another it is one or another of these conceptions depending upon the characteristics of the age that the historian desires to stress. As we teachers approach a period or an epoch, we must decide which of these conceptions will bring out most clearly its dominant color or character. Thus, in teaching the Critical Period (1783–1789) to children of school age, the political phase ought to take precedence. But with secondary-school pupils, the economic undercurrents must be made dominant. In teaching the Colonial Period, chronological history and political development must be focalized in the series of lessons. The period of 1872–1899 in American history sums up the years of economic development, hence the economic aspect must prevail. To interpret all history, all periods, all men, all movements from one angle gives a conception of history that is both inadequate and misleading. It is the duty of the teacher of history to look ahead, to make himself master of a liberal stock of historical information and then interpret the period under study in the light of its outstanding character.

What Shall the Content of History Be?

A clear understanding of the various interpretations of history will serve in determining the content of history. If a period is to be emphasized because of its contribution to the economic or political development of a nation, such data must be included as will build up a rich impression of this economic aspect. Subject matter which does not contribute to the outstanding tendency may well be subordinated or even omitted. We must aim to give not a complete story of a period but rather a thorough understanding and a permanent impression of its underlying tendencies. Thus in the period of 1872–1899, political changes, party platforms, and party success may well be subordinated to the story of industrial and commercial development. The

thoughtful teacher will soon learn that no single textbook can be made the sole guide for either the content or the development of history. How many of our frequently used texts still devote one half of their pages to events up to 1789, how little is given in these books to the period of 1865–1872 and 1872–1899. How many of them are agreed on what events to include or on how much should be taught about each important topic. How many still give valuable space to the exploits of Captain John Smith and, in passing, merely mention the First Colonial Assembly and the beginnings of democratic government. Textbooks should be studied and their aid sought, but no single text should exercise the sole determining influence in shaping the course of study.

It has long been the hope of some teachers to have historical data grouped into universally accepted epochs which determine the sequence of lessons and the division of teaching time. Here again, there is need of careful weighing of subject matter in terms of a social standard. What is an epoch? Surely neither a span of years nor the number of events determines an epoch. Not time, but a series of events dominated by an underlying tendency in the development of a people determines an epoch. It was believed that decisive events and heroic figures marked off sharply the beginnings and the ends of periods in the trend of human affairs. This arbitrary partitioning of history, produced by a desire to systematize the variety of forces in a nation's life, does no little violence to reason and historic truth. Here we have the origin of that popular historic fallacy known as the Dark Ages.

History organized on a basis of decades, 1800–1810, 1810–1820, 1820–1830, or administrations is therefore not history organized by epochs. The period of 1815–1860 may be regarded as an epoch because events tended toward the same end, the alienation of the North from the South and

the growth of misunderstanding and bitterness. Unless the teacher's reading in history is extensive, unless he organizes subject matter, seeks underlying currents, and constantly tests subject matter in terms of the standards we have set forth, he cannot present a highly vitalized and socializing study.

Problems for Study and Discussion

1. Examine a course of study in history prescribed for the elementary and junior high schools of a local community. Which conception of history predominates? What evidence do you find in the course of study to justify your conclusion?

2. Select a textbook in history used in the fifth and sixth years; in the seventh and eighth years; in the ninth year. What conception of history is stressed by the author of each of these books? State the considerations that lead you to your inference.

3. Plan a lesson on the Discovery of America illustrating the biographical conception of history. What changes in content and method would you make in this lesson if you were teaching history as a record of the past? as economic development? as social evolution?

4. What place is accorded to history in the curriculum advocated by Herbart? By Spencer? Which of the conceptions of history discussed in this chapter would be accepted by each of these writers?

5. The following facts or stories are usually included in history courses: Ponce de Leon and the search for the fountain of eternal youth; the exploits of Captain John Smith; French and Indian War; Arnold's treason; the Battle of Lexington; Eli Whitney's cotton gin; the first transcontinental railroad; the Battle of Manila Bay; Roosevelt's congress for the conservation of natural resources; Wilson and the Vera Cruz incident; the conquest of yellow fever.

Which of these should be eliminated? Which stressed? What standard would guide you in the selection of material for a course in school history?

6. Outline the treatment of the topic "The Settlement of Virginia" as given in a commonly used textbook in American history? What conception of history is revealed in the author's

treatment? In the light of the exposition of the significance of the evolutionary conceptions of history, which facts should be stressed? Which minimized? Which omitted?

7. What values may a teacher reasonably expect from the practice of requiring systematic reading of biography by the pupils? How would you classify these values?

8. How would one who upholds the economic conception of history explain the achievements of a people in the arts and the sciences?

PART II

HOW TO ATTAIN THE VALUES OF HISTORY

CHAPTER II

HISTORY AS A SOCIALIZING AGENT

BEFORE undertaking the study of methods of teaching history, we must consider carefully the specific objectives which we seek to attain. The aims are many and they vary in importance. We may group them however into three classes: (1) The Utilitarian or Practical Aim; (2) The Intellectual Aims; and (3) The Spiritual Aims. We must analyze these groups of purposes to ascertain not only their relation to the life of the pupil, but also the means of achieving them.

The Utilitarian Aim of History

Gives Useful Knowledge.—History serves a practical purpose in the everyday life of the child. It gives a body of useful information necessary for intelligent understanding of common allusions in daily reading. One is expected to understand the reference in such expressions as "The '49ers," "The Spirit of '76," "The Blue and the Gray," "Mason and Dixon Line," "The Solid South," "Watchful Waiting," "Peace Without Victory," "The Carpet Baggers," "The K. K. K.," "Dollar Diplomacy." So, too, certain names, places, facts, and dates must be part of the informational possession of all intelligent citizens.

Socializes the Child.—The study of history tends to socialize the child by causing him to relive the life of the race. One does not understand America to-day who does not know the story of her birth, her trials, and her tradi-

tions. The environment is no detached product but rather a resultant of forces that defy enumeration. The mere study of civics, of governmental structure or function is inadequate to socialize the child thoroughly. The study of history identifies him with the struggles and the sacrifices of the race. The child thus develops a sympathetic understanding of the national life of which he must become a part.

History does more than nationalize the child; it socializes him. The immature pupil knows, at best, only the little of life that he has lived. Personal experience, even of his elders, is circumscribing and too often limits vision. The study of history and the social sciences, together with extensive reading of intelligently selected literature, brings within our scope life that is beyond personal experience. In history, the pupil sees man in every possible human activity or relationship—in war and in peace; in the throes of defeat and in the joys of victory; in selfish aggrandizement and in unselfish sacrifice of life that right may prevail. There is not a human situation that is not portrayed in history, nor a human emotion that is not stirred by its narrative. To study history responsively is to acquire a sympathetic understanding of human life, nay, to share in that life itself. The socializing influence of history on youth is direct and potent.

Teaches the Art of Study.—To these two practical values, we may add a third, for, in the study of history, the child learns the intelligent use of a book. History, properly presented, teaches how to select facts from the printed page, how to organize them and how to weigh them in formulating judgments. It lends itself better than most school subjects to the development of the art of study.

Arouses New Interests.—And, finally, it must be remembered that history, properly taught, develops new interests in young people. The content of history is dramatic. It

is rich in stories of heroes, of adventure, of romance, and of tragedy. These are the very factors that explain the child's love of story and serve to motivate his reading. We must arouse a desire to read not only formal history but also biography, historic fiction, and the outstanding epics of our language. This new interest in reading is both a significant factor in the cultural development of the pupil and an effective means of investing his leisure.

How to Attain the Socializing and Utilitarian Values of History

We must now address ourselves to the practical question of how to attain these socializing results of history teaching.

First, we must relate history most intimately to the present and regard the past as vital because it gives meaning to it. History must be presented as social evolution in which all the preceding stages serve only to explain the last one, the present.

Second, whenever possible, present and past must be placed in contrast. In teaching the modes of travel, transportation, farming, lumbering, manufacturing, or trading in the past, we must constantly call for contrasts with the present. As the child sees the inefficient methods and primitive implements of the past, he realizes the extent of our physical progress. As we impress upon the pupil the religious intolerance, the disregard of the individual, the limitations of speech and press in bygone days, he readily understands that, though we have not yet attained complete emancipation, we have, surely, traveled far and fast toward that goal. Through pictures, verbal descriptions, anecdotes, and visits to museums, we must give so vivid an impression of this contrast that pupils learn that progress is continuous change towards ever increasing human happiness.

A third means of quickening the socializing influence of history is to encourage much correlated reading in general literature, biography and fiction. Now the past begins to live and the child understands its message.

Fourth, it is important that in our history teaching we stress the hero of peace as well as the hero of war. We must make certain that the child understands that civilization grows in years of peace and is retarded by conflict.

It is queer history that some teach about the ancients. War succeeds war till battles fill the pages. The pupil is just completing the results of one war of the Greeks, when to his surprise, the next page introduces the causes of the next conflict. The immature student fails to take full cognizance of the intervening years, perhaps seventy-five or more, which are passed over as if empty. Truly these ancients were barbarians, he thinks. As evidence, witness their constant warfare. But when did these Greeks, with their genius for beauty, create their temples and statues? When did their poets and dramatists delight the citizenry? How were their philosophers developed, the product of a leisure intellectualism? Historians assure us that the ancient Greek rarely spent more than three years of his life in active warfare. Have we given less time to warfare? It thus becomes clear that the Greeks devoted no less time to the development of an æsthetic civilization than do we moderns.

And fifth, we must broaden history in order to intensify its socializing influence on our young people. The history we teach in the first nine years of school must be world history as well as United States history; it must be the story of mankind as well as the story of the people of the United States. It is well to remember that the vast majority of our citizens of the next generation will have less than nine years of formal education. They must be given their view of world history in the elementary and junior

high schools. What if we decided to limit geography to the study of the United States! Is there any more justification for teaching the history of one people—our people, to be sure—and calling that history? History must be liberalized and broadened. It must become human and humane. It must be taught because it develops social-mindedness. It must never be permitted to become a mere instrument of propaganda, instilling a narrow patriotism and a narrower nationalism that glory in successful wrongs. The great idealist of the World War taught us that America entered the conflict to make the world, not merely the United States, safe for democracy. History that is world history and that cultivates a world outlook is history that may hope to achieve its greatest function, the socialization of youth.

Problems for Study and Discussion

1. List the historic references that you find in ten editorials of your favorite newspaper. Which of these references determine the meaning of the text? What purpose do the others serve? Which of these should be included in the course in history?

2. List relationships which the child must establish which are domestic, vocational, social, politically national, and politically local. In what way does the content of history give maturing youth direct guidance in these adjustments which he must make?

3. "History does more than nationalize the child; it socializes him" (p. 26). Distinguish nationalizing from socializing the child; give ample concrete instances of each process.

4. One of the vital objectives in education is to teach pupils how to invest their leisure hours. What new interests may be aroused in some children through the study of history? How will the satisfaction of these interests add to the children's capacity to invest their leisure more profitably?

5. Show how the following topics of history may be taught with due relationship to contemporary life: problems of reconstruction after the Civil War; Andrew Jackson and the spoils system; immigration; acquisition of the Philippine Islands and Porto Rico.

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CHAPTER III

HISTORY AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF IMAGINATION

Disciplinary Values of History

Aside from practical and social values, history teaching is rich in opportunities for developing mental habits and intellectual capacities. Teachers of history realize fully that the content they emphasize to-day will soon be forgotten. They find courage for the continuance of their task in the thought that the pupil is learning to use his mind in acquiring historical information. Though the facts be forgotten, modes of mental function remain as permanent possessions. Disciplinary values refer to the permanent effects upon the mind after the specific experiences themselves are no longer subject to ready and voluntary recall.

Training the Imagination

It is obvious that imagination is stimulated and developed by historical study. The child is constantly called upon to reconstruct the past with its distinctive attitude towards life and its own mode of living. The child must see the houses, the people, the industries, the modes of communication and transportation of a bygone age. The scene of Columbus' frail craft on the turbulent Atlantic gives way to the picture of torches lighting the black night as De Soto is laid to rest in the waters of the Mississippi; the picture of the humble surroundings in which Lincoln was born gives way to the scene of the drama of Gettys-

burg. The panorama which the child sees is constantly changing. No phase of life is neglected. All the yesterdays pass in grand review.

Meaning of Developing the Imagination

Before entering upon the discussion of the means of developing imagination, we must understand clearly the meaning of the oft-repeated phrase, "developing the imagination." The child's imagination seems sufficiently active. We have long explained the falsehood and the fears of children as the result of overactive imagination. Clearly, the imagination of many children during their school years needs no further stimulation. It can create, at will, a new world with new people, no less real than the world of reality. Cinderella and her ardent prince are no make-believe puppets. They are real. Very frequently the imagination of childhood, sensitive and ultra-active, defies reality for it is itself a creator of products that to the child are real. The fairy's wand changes the ragged cinder girl into a vision of loveliness. The child's imagination knows no law and transcends all bounds of probability.

But the imagination that makes for progress conceives the possible and the probable. The imagination of Jules Verne does not produce an airplane; the imagination of Grimm or Hans Andersen does not beget the vision of social life free from injustice and unhappiness. The inventors, the painters, the sculptors, the scientists, the poets, the great teachers of social and religious reform, who have liberated life from the thralldom of nature and man, are possessed of imaginations that strive to come close to that which can be actualized. But untrained imagination is utterly unconcerned with probability or reality.

To train the imagination, give it direction rather than stimulation. Encourage the young mind to image new

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situations but help it to evolve a product that can be expressed verbally, musically, graphically, or manually. When imagination begins to produce images that approximate the probable and the possible, then and then only does it give evidence of training and development.

Imagination, however active, cannot create what is absolutely new. It combines old experiences into new relations. Every mechanical invention is only a new combination of the well-known elements—levers, pulleys, and inclined planes. Every musical composition is only a new arrangement of the same basic tones. Every canvas, however fanciful its theme, is only another combination of old experiences. It follows, therefore, that in training the imagination, children must be given as much contact as possible with the concrete so that they will have rich content with which to reconstruct the past. Sense training, sense teaching, perceptual contacts—these furnish the raw experiences out of which a creative imagination is evolved.

Can the Child Relive the Past?

Earnest teachers often doubt whether children can reconstruct the past. To them, "reliving the past," and "catching the spirit of bygone days" are grossly exaggerated hopes. They ask, "How can children with limited experience in the living present, relive the past?" The power to vivify the past can be adequately developed in most children by specially planned methods of teaching. To these teaching practices we shall now turn.

How Shall We Make the Past Real?

1. *Rich Basis of Sense Experience Is Essential.*—Our discussion emphasized the need of sense experience as the material with which the imagination creates its pictures. The congenitally deaf cannot have an auditory image of

experience; similarly the congenitally blind are without visual imagery.

It is no simple matter to provide a rich basis of sense experience with which the imagination may function. The child who has not seen primitive country and observed life close to nature cannot usually imagine the rigors of the first winter of the Puritans in America. Those who have never been on the ocean and have never seen small wind craft helplessly tossed about, frequently fail to imagine the terrors of the storms through which Columbus' fleet passed. The richer the actual experiences of the child, the more he learns from life instead of from books, and the better is his material for rebuilding the past. Unless sense knowledge is stressed in geography, in nature study, in elementary science, in hygiene, in picture studies, the child is badly handicapped in his effort to image the life of earlier centuries. The following suggestions give means of helping pupils to overcome this difficulty. True, the child of sluggish mind may not be stirred to create anything out of his sense perceptions. But the most gifted imagination cannot rise above the limitations of its actual experience.

2. *Pictorial Aids.*—The school can, of course, do much to enrich the sense knowledge of the child by bringing pictorial representation of experience into the classroom. Pictures, stereoptican views, and motion pictures go a long way toward making up the narrowness of actual experience. No extended discussion is necessary to convince teachers of the educational opportunities of screen material artistically conceived and truthfully developed.

How to use pictorial aids. Pictorial aids are not without dangers for class use. (*a*) They tend to discourage active participation of the class in the lesson. It is therefore advisable to encourage children to find pictures of historical subjects in books, magazines, and advertising booklets. These should be properly labeled and mounted by them.

(*b*) The number of illustrations presented should be reduced to the smallest number necessary to give the mind an adequate picture. Numerous illustrations cause confused impressions or too many ill defined impressions. A few well chosen pictorial aids help to create a clear image of experience.

(*c*) Special effort must be made to dispel children's belief that a history lesson based on selected pictures is a period free from responsibility. Children must not look upon such a lesson as a form of classroom entertainment. Throughout the exhibition of pictures, questions must be asked that call for contrasts and inferences. Unless the children are led to take an active attitude towards these illustrative aids, they will not carry away the rich materials that will form the basis of creative imagery. Let the children look at a picture of a colonial farm, of a town meeting in colonial days, of an Indian village or of a street scene in a Spanish city in 1492 and ascertain by suitable tests what knowledge they have acquired. The teacher will then realize how little they see in a picture. They bring little to it and take almost as little from it.

Each picture worth showing must be subjected to a series of questions which reveals to the pupil the stock of information that he did not see for himself. After the picture "Digging the Erie Canal" is exhibited, questions asked of the class should direct attention to (*i*) the absence of machinery; (*ii*) the nature of the topography; (*iii*) the reliance on human power rather than on steam or electricity; (*iv*) the use of horse and ox rather than automotive transportation, etc. A final question, "What differences would you expect to see in a picture showing the construction of the Panama Canal?" will further stimulate thought and keep the children from becoming mentally slack during this lesson.

It is well to present a problem that may be solved by

a careful study of the pictures selected for a lesson. Thus the class is shown the changes in elevation of the land, and it concludes that there will be a waterfall at the place where the water will flow to the lower level. Is a waterfall desirable in a canal? What device safeguards the boats that go from higher to lower levels? How will a boat go from lower to higher levels? The class is baffled and turns to the picture of the locks in the canal for explanation. In a few minutes as many questions are asked by the class as by the teacher. Opinions are offered, and explanations suggested by different pupils are refuted, defended, and modified until the deciding voice of the teacher is sought. Exercises of this type lead to highly socialized recitations and teach children to read pictures as well as print.

3. *Vivid Oral Presentation* v. *Book Teaching.*—The development of history lessons by reading and expounding the textbook is still observed with discouraging frequency. The teacher announces the topic and the page. Children read paragraph after paragraph and are interrupted frequently to make clear the meaning of the text. It is often difficult to distinguish this type of history lesson from a language lesson. Although such textbook work is a desirable supplementary procedure, it must not be the sole teaching practice. When imagination is to be aroused and stimulated to a desired degree, the instruction should be oral and alive with genuine enthusiasm. The class that is introduced to a new topic by passing from sentence to sentence in the textbook will soon sink to the level of the cold page. There is a rapid contagion of enthusiasm when the situation is presented orally with stirring vividness. The children's imagination is quickened, and their minds "see" as they project themselves into the picture the teacher is painting.[1]

[1] See "The Vivid Narration by the Teacher," Chap. XV, pp. 220–221, for fuller treatment of this suggestion.

4. *Emphasize the Picture Side of Historical Situation.*— The opportunities afforded by history for the training of imagination have not been utilized because mere memorizing of facts has too long been the sole desideratum. We must look at the human basis of the facts if we are to make them real. In explaining any historical occurrence, one must always take full stock of its human background and lose no opportunity to show that it is but the action and reaction of human motives.

How frequently does one hear teacher and class reiterate, "The Stamp Act was one of the causes of the American Revolution." To the teacher's questions, the children answer: "It required a stamp on certain documents; no, the tax was small; it did not directly affect all people; it was bitterly opposed in the colonies; it was repealed one year later." The auditor is left clearly unconvinced. How can a measure so mild in its prescription cause or even contribute to a quarrel, let alone a war?

This lesson on the Stamp Act includes the facts, but it overlooks completely the human basis that gives reality. We must sketch, with the collaboration of the children, the development of self-government in the colonies; the zeal with which this sacred right was guarded; the watchfulness to detect the slightest infringement of it; and finally, the deep concern felt when it was reported that a series of measures would be passed which would materially weaken autonomy in each colony. The Stamp Act, regardless of its comparatively mild prescriptions, was regarded as the writing on the wall; it became a symbol of repression and interference. The teacher can tell of the happenings in New York when the word was passed, "The stamps are here"; how the indignant citizens gathered at the Battery to prevent the landing of officers and stamps; how they compromised on the plan to deposit the stamps in the governor's house until second word came from Eng-

land; how a series of mass meetings was organized that evening to denounce the new measure of oppression; how they paraded and made bonfires; and how they burned in effigy the captain of the vessel and the royal governor. What happened in New York was repeated in other large colonial cities. Here we have a picture of a situation that rings true. The opposition to the Stamp Act is now a symbol of manly determination and of defiance flung in the face of autocracy. With this picture complete before his mind's eye, the child can readily understand how the Stamp Act helped to stir resentment that was bitter enough to make armed resistance inevitable.

Too often the child who can recite the date of settlement of a colony, the causes that brought the colonists to America, the progress of the settlers, their form of government—in a word, the round of facts usually given in any book—has historical data, but his knowledge lacks life. Not until he can see the people—their villages, their homes, their dress, their food, their daily cares and privations, the crude industrial activities, the uncertainties of the hour, and the ravages of disease—not until then, has he really learned the most vital aspect of colonial settlement. These pictures determine in no small measure the understanding of the basic facts and make the past vibrant with life. They make history as gripping and fascinating as the stories of literature.

5. *The Child Must Be Identified with the Situation.*—Another means of stirring the imagination is to place the child in the midst of the historical situation we are asking him to visualize. Let the pupil be the colonial boy or girl and recite the round of activities, educational, domestic, religious, and vocational, that fill his waking hours. Let the child project himself into the body of Columbus and overhear the mutinous crew and their decision to throw him overboard. What would you have done? Would you

have insisted on continuing the voyage? Would you have acquiesced or resisted in the face of a threat so easy of execution? Let the child imagine himself to be Washington. "Would you have rejected the crown within such certain reach?" As the child translates himself into historical personages and identifies himself most intimately with historical conditions, the mind is fired and the images flow quickly.

6. *Dramatization.*—A favorite method of appealing to the imagination is to carry the previous suggestion even further and encourage the actual dramatization of the events of the past. Dramatizations are effective and for that reason frequently employed in class teaching.

Dangers of inadequate dramatization. Unless great care is taken with dramatization in history the results are ludicrous and the ends so eagerly sought are defeated. A few classroom illustrations will show how easily the most stirring situations can be made almost foolish through incompetent dramatization.

A fifth-year class, studying the Revolutionary War, was discussing the winter at Valley Forge. To make the history real, the children were arranged in groups on the floor; each group was warming its hands at the imaginary fire about which it sat; each child through comment or action tried to convey the idea that the suffering from the bitter cold was made more acute by pangs of hunger and homesickness. As one looked about, the sham of the picture made the situation preposterous. Here were forty boys, with active imagination, overdressed and just returned from lunch, sitting on the floor of an overheated classroom warming their warm hands at an imaginary fire. By imposing such a dramatization, the imagination is hindered from clothing the real situation with all its grandeur of pain and self-sacrifice. What a richer and truer picture would result in the minds, if the teacher, through vivid oral narra-

tive portrayed the discouraged, underclothed, and hungry army exposed to the rigors of winter. The imaginations of the children, taking their cue from the verbal details, would paint real men, suffering real agony, but buoyed up by an intense faith in their cause. Inadequate dramatization robs history of its human dignity.

Let us examine another illustration of inadequate dramatization. The signing of the Declaration of Independence is frequently acted by selected pupils. A long sheet of paper is placed on the teacher's desk. Several of the boys, impersonating Jefferson, Franklin, Hancock, Randolph, and the other patriots, make memorized comments as they scrawl their names across the paper.

Here is a situation that is pregnant with dramatic significance for the human race. It marks the birth of modern political democracy. Each of the men who affixed his name to the document realized fully that if the revolt failed his property would be confiscated, his family beggared, and he himself hanged in the public square. With the consequences vividly before him, each man took the irrevocable step; he signed his name and wrote himself down, in the eyes of George III, a traitor to England.

Does the procession of boys to the teacher's desk to sign an empty sheet stir the admiration which such courage provokes? Does not this dramatization rob the situation of its real spiritual significance and paralyze the wings of fancy so that the mind sees nothing more than a few classmates writing their names on a worthless sheet? Would not the carefully prepared, vivid exposition by the teacher serve to rouse in the pupils' minds a picture more in keeping with the majesty and the dignity of the original act?

Aims of dramatization. The pivotal question is, therefore, when to dramatize? The answer will depend upon a recognition of the objects of dramatization. We may dramatize in history (*a*) when comprehension is to be en-

hanced, and (*b*) when an emotion is to be aroused. In subjects other than history, added aims may obtain, but in history and civics either of these two purposes will justify dramatization. Let us consider each.

(*a*) *Dramatization for comprehension.* A teacher may have serious doubt about the ability of the children to understand the facts presented by Columbus to the Court of Spain to prove that the earth is round and that it would be wise to sail west to reach India. Similar doubts may exist about the rival claims of France and England to Canada; about the contending arguments presented by the opposing sides in the great disputes that made the period of 1783–1789 the critical years in American history; about the issues concerning the imperialistic policy of the government in taking over the Philippine Islands; about the reasons advanced for and against the entrance of the United States into the League of Nations. Questions by the teacher, added explanations to the class, and further book study may not help the children to comprehend fully these situations.

Dramatization is a great help in acquiring clear comprehension of all the circumstances attending one of these historical problems. One child represents Columbus, another, the jesting minister, the rest of the class, the skeptical courtiers. Columbus presents his case; the minister asks his questions; the courtiers express doubt and hostility. Every question is answered; every doubt or expression of hostile opinion is removed by the clear and forceful presentation made by Columbus until he has proved his contention to the satisfaction of the queen.

In like manner, similar debates on the issues involved in the other great questions mentioned above will produce clearer understanding. Let those representing England present their claims to Canada as the French listen and await their opportunity to set forth their demands and

refute the contentions of their adversaries. A formal debate on any of these historical disputes is likely to become stilted. Let the children impersonate the characters of history, and the quarrels of old, long since settled, become their concern of the moment.

(*b*) *Dramatization for emotional response.* In addition to these questions which children may not readily comprehend, we find historical situations which call for a particular emotional reaction. In order to understand the causes of the American Revolution, children must try to feel, as much as they can, the intensity of the resentment towards the British policy to restrict colonial autonomy. Let the class be Patrick Henry's auditors as the famous oration is delivered. The Tories snicker and even interject an occasional "Treason!" as the patriot stirs in the breasts of his hearers the resentment which he himself feels. The emotional reaction that is desired need not be that of hostile resentment toward a country with which old differences have long been settled. Rather must we seek to arouse a keen admiration for the man who had the courage to speak his mind and to express his convictions in the presence of an audience, half of which represented Tory disagreement.

This type of dramatization is effective only as the Patrick Henry of the occasion can deliver his speech with force and conviction. It is well at times for the teacher to participate in the dramatization by taking the most difficult part and thus insuring success.

Suggestions for dramatization. (*a*) Before planning dramatization of historical situations, the teacher must determine whether it will serve either of the two purposes elaborated above. The story of a battle, of Valley Forge, or of the Boston Massacre is an illustration of the type of dramatization that must be avoided because the imagination of the child can create a picture far superior to any crude demonstration that may be staged in class. To

dramatize "Wolfe Climbing the Heights of Abraham," or "The Death of Wolfe and Montcalm" is to threaten the sublime with becoming ridiculous.

(*b*) Effective dramatization is largely spontaneous. The children must enter into the spirit of the situation and speak, in their own language, for the characters they represent. To recite lines written by others, to reproduce actions repeatedly rehearsed, and to assume attitudes and perform gestures dictated by the teacher is not dramatization. It is amateur dramatics whose method and aim differ markedly from dramatization designed as an instructional aid.

Not all spontaneous dramatization has teaching values for history. Children may introduce ideas and emotions that had no part in the situation they portray. Since dramatizations are determined by imagination and the play sense, spontaneous dramatizations are not free from grave danger. They may give ideas and attitudes not warranted by historic fact. Historic improvisation may ruthlessly jar historic truth.

(*c*) Care must be exercised to prevent dramatizations from becoming star performances. To select those children who speak well, who are overexpressive and who have the gift of imagination for class dramatization defeats the governing aim. All children must be stirred, every one's imagination must be stimulated and emotions quickened. Successful dramatization encourages class, not individual, participation.

(*d*) And above all dramatization must be kept simple. Attention should be focused on the situation itself, not on the costumes, modes of speech, gesture, and stage property. If the historical situation itself does not hold the children and lead them to identify themselves completely with it, the dramatization may well be abandoned.

7. *Pageantry.*—A means, rich in dramatic appeal, for making history real is the pageant. Historic pageants

produce interesting class projects that correlate many subjects of the school curriculum.

An eighth-year class undertook to plan a pageant on "The Contribution of the Immigrant to the Making of America." A host of problems arose at once. These were listed on the board and the class decided on the order in which to attack them.

1. What is the most appropriate title of the pageant?
2. What immigrant groups shall we include?
   (*a*) What nationalities do we find in America?
   (*b*) On what basis shall we make the selection?
   (*c*) What groups are therefore to be included?
3. How can we portray the contribution of any national group?
   (*a*) By impersonating the most noted heroes.
   (*b*) By appropriate floats.
   (*c*) By dances.
   (*d*) By singing their folk and national songs.
   (*e*) By preparing posters of the most notable achievements.
4. What shall we portray of each of the selected groups?
   (*a*) What do we know of each group?
   (*b*) What does our history tell us?
   (*c*) What further reading shall we do?
5. Writing the pageant.
6. Planning the costumes with the teacher of sewing.
7. Planning the floats and the scenery with the shopwork teacher.
8. Learning the necessary songs. Help from the music teacher.
9. The posters, designs, painting of the scenery—the work of the drawing class.
10. Publicity material:
    (*a*) Writing the advertising posters.
    (*b*) Writing invitations to town and school authorities.
    (*c*) Writing invitations to parents.

Such a project interrelates in a very natural way the work in English, history, civics, music, drawing, and manual arts. It serves as a connecting theme affording

ample opportunity for motivated compositions and for numerous reviews of history. Most of these values are retained even when the pageant is not carried beyond the stage of complete planning. It is not necessary actually to make the costumes, floats, and scenery. If these are all described and the important phases of the pageant are worked out, then the mind has actively imaged the past and made it live. Needless to add, a pageant project carried to completion, intensifies the values we have just named. Other effective pageant subjects that lend themselves to class planning are: "Dress, Past and Present"; "The Struggle for Independence"; "The Price of War"; "The Heroes of Peace"; "The Heroes of the Sea"; "The Life of Lincoln"; "New England's Contribution to the United States"; "The Farmer, Past and Present"; "The Development of the West"; "Cotton and the Development of the United States."

8. *Visits to Places of Historical Interest.*—Fortunately the past has not been completely destroyed. What remains of it must be used as aids with which the imagination is to picture the life that the present has supplanted. Systematic visits to historical museums, colonial houses, Indian exhibits, places that have served as the stage on which the drama of the past was enacted, must be undertaken in the hope of giving zest and reality to the past.

How can one teach the past without bringing to the class the painting, the music, the sculpture, the dress, the industries, the tools, the religious outlook, all the significant phases of life, so well illustrated in the large museums of the land. Nevertheless one finds history classes in junior and senior high schools in a city like New York that plod their weary way through the maze of facts without once calling upon the priceless collections like those in the Metropolitan Museum of Art or in the American Museum of Natural History.

Special effort must be made to impart a serious aspect to these visits to places of historical interest. Children are prone to look upon these visits as half holidays, doubly welcome because of the unexpected respite from class routine. It is important that such a visit be regarded as a continuation of class work and that it be undertaken in an earnest endeavor to understand a problem that has arisen in the study of the past.

Pupils must be prepared for what is to be seen. They should know the object of the visit, the scope of what may be observed, what is important and what, though interesting, has no serious historical value. Without such an introduction, pupils wander about aimlessly, profiting little by what they see and return confused by the number and variety of impressions of the day.

An attempt must be made to use the results of these supervised visits.[2] Through informal discussion rather than through a formal quiz, the observations made by the children should be recalled and arranged preparatory to any inferences which they may be led to draw. After a visit to a Revolutionary battlefield, teacher and class, in the course of a seemingly undirected conversation, emphasized the character of the land, its strategic importance, the advantages which it offered to one side and a number of related observations and conclusions. Aside from their historical values, well planned visits give training in intelligent observation and in thinking.

9. *The Use of Maps.*—"History is only geography set in motion," Herder tells us. The introductory lessons in methodology impress upon the student teacher the importance of giving no history lesson without a map. Topic after topic in history has a geographical basis so significant that without the map historical data lack meaning.

[2] See Chap. XVI, p. 253, "Testing through Expression," for fuller treatment.

Throughout the study of the periods of exploration and colonization, the map is as important as the facts of history themselves. Without a map, the story of a military campaign like Burgoyne's consists of a series of arbitrary details; with it, the facts follow in sequence so logical that children can often anticipate the military progress. Similarly, the understanding of such topics as territorial growth, the Missouri Compromise, the growth of slavery, the Mason and Dixon Line, the growth of the West, the present-day distribution of population, or the American participation in the last offensive of the World War, are absolutely determined by familiarity with the map and its proper use throughout the series of lessons. The events of history can be "localized in time and space."

There are a few primary considerations that determine the effective use of maps in the teaching of history. The most helpful maps are made by teacher and pupils. It may be well to use the printed outline map freely and limit the child's work to the insertion of those elements that are most vital to the lesson. It is also important to begin with the outline map of a large geographical unit rather than with the map of a specific locality in which the historical events studied happened to take place. The map grows as the lesson is developed, with ample reference to physical and political maps in the geography textbook or on the wall before the class. Thus, in teaching Burgoyne's campaign or the last offensive against the Germans, it is well to start with an outline map of the United States or Western Europe. The specific details of the campaigns are added as they are taken up in their chronological sequence. At the end of the lessons on either of these campaigns each child has his own map, which grew with his knowledge of the events.

In teaching the Period of Explorations, each child should begin with a map of the western hemisphere, the Atlantic

Ocean, and Western Europe. As each important discoverer is studied the children indicate by a line the starting point, the direction, and the regions explored. On the line, the name of the explorer or discoverer and his dates are written. Thus, a line beginning at about Bristol, England, runs west to the coast of Breton Island and then to Newfoundland and Labrador. On this line is written, "John Cabot, 1497," and at its terminus is a question mark indicating that the exact region he explored is not definitely known. The color of the line indicates the nation under whose flag the explorer sailed.

When the study of the period is concluded, each child has a map edited by himself, summing up the following facts: discoverer or explorer; dates; nation basing its claim on the achievement of its explorers; regions so claimed. The entire summary is graphic and can readily be visualized by each pupil.

The maps in school texts are usually unsatisfactory for class use. They are too small, too detailed, and limited to a specific area. Questions on these maps reveal the fact that children experience no little difficulty in finding required data and in interpreting the symbols. The completeness of these maps is but a source of confusion. Recently it was found that few children studying a particular map showing one of the major campaigns of the Civil War recognized the region represented; they could not even identify the states shown in the small map. The first glance at the map was so forbidding that it discouraged further attention to it.

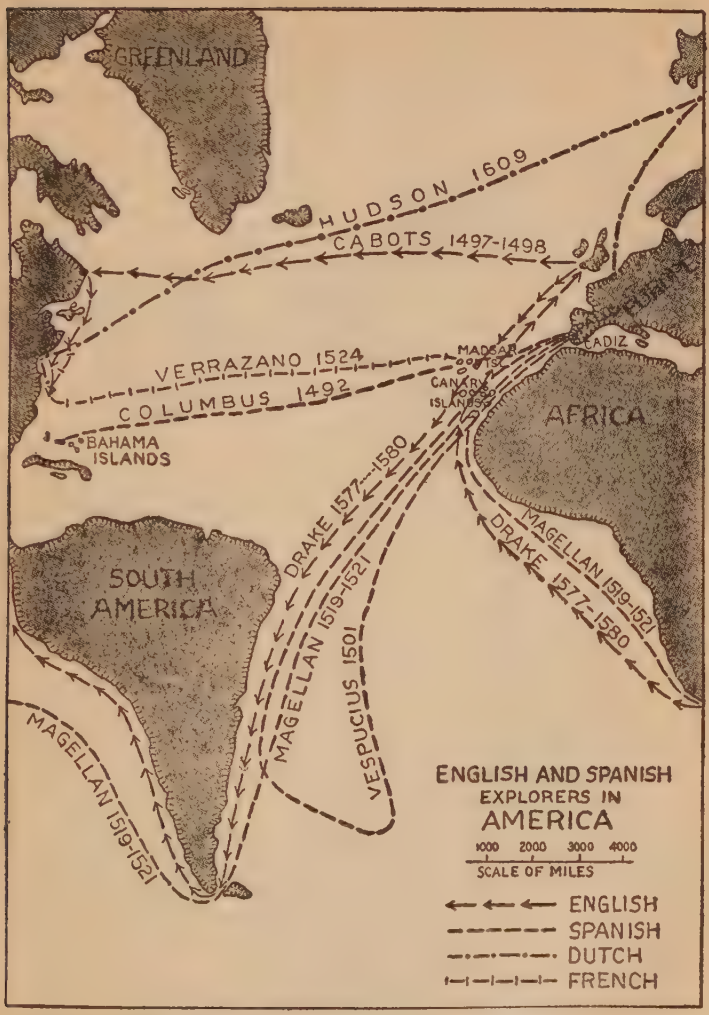
A further use of the map. For economy of time in tests, there are few devices as valuable as maps. Draw a map of the section of France in which the summer and fall fighting of 1918 occurred. The children copy this. Then require them to indicate (*a*) where three important engagements took place; (*b*) The German line in June and

again in November of 1918; (c) the location of some important cities and towns, Paris, Rheims, Soissons, St. Mihiel, Verdun, Château Thierry, etc. In a few minutes the most important facts of American military participation are set down. By this procedure there is as much economy of time in rating papers as in giving the test. The map may, therefore, be used in testing as well as in giving deeper interpretation of historic data.

The accompanying maps are adaptations of work done by pupils. The first was developed slowly as the succeeding lessons unfolded the topic, "The Exploration of the New World." The second map is more than a map. It is a graphic representation of the early colonization of the United States. Not only do these maps mean more to the pupils who made them, but they also make a more personal appeal. The pupil who is eye-minded in social subjects finds these maps distinctly helpful.

Cautions in Map Work.—It is also necessary to keep in mind that many children do not understand the symbols of map representation. They do not know how to find distance and direction from a given place. Pupils often think that New York State is as large as all the New England States because the map of New York is shown on a page as large as the one that represents the six states to the northeast of it. With such crude conceptions uppermost, these children need constant explanation and interpretation of the symbols used by the cartographer.

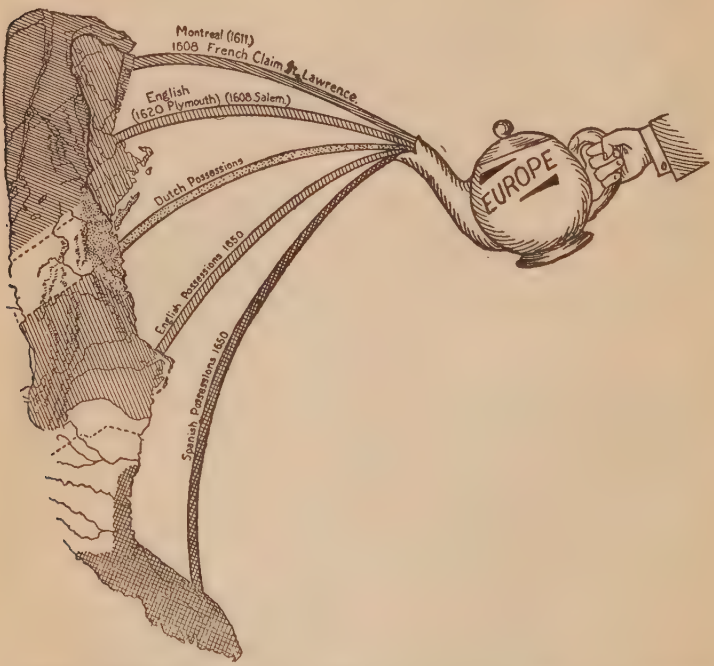
Another word of caution may be helpful. We must beware of the map fetish. Do not locate every place mentioned. Leave something for the periods devoted to geography. Bring in that geography which gives richer insight into history but do not correlate merely for the pedagogic purpose of correlating. Not infrequently does one meet with such map work as the following: "Lafayette then came from France," says the pupil. "Yes," replies the



THE EXPLORATION OF THE NEW WORLD

An adaptation of a map made by an eighth-grade pupil of Junior High School No. 139, New York City.

teacher, "locate France." The purpose of Lafayette's coming, not the location of his home country, is the fact that needs emphasis at the moment. To stop the narrative in order to locate France aborts an important line of thought.



CARTOON SHOWING IMMIGRATION FROM EUROPE TO ATLANTIC SEABOARD
Adapted from map made by two pupils based on similar map in *Making History Graphic* by Daniel C. Knowlton (Chas. Scribner's Sons, 1925), p. 101.

Mace cautions wisely when he says:[3]

The bald location on the map of all the places named in the text is almost useless work. The danger is that the pupil carries away in memory a certain number of data located on certain

[3] W. H. Mace, *Methods in History* (Ginn & Co., 1902).

parts of the map instead of events in their real geographical relations. This gives the imagination no aid in picturing the physical surroundings of things, and has very little historical value. The map is a means in history, whether it is furnished by the book or made by the pupil. The historical map may be made by the student, if in the making he gains something of historical value. It should be accurate, rather than beautiful; the end is an historical idea and not an aesthetic emotion.

Summary.—We may now sum up the part the map plays in the teaching of history. For reasons of economy and greater effectiveness of visual appeal, this summary is presented in semi-tabular form.

VALUES OF THE MAP IN THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

Geographical Considerations	*Pedagogical Correlations*	*Historical Correlations*
1. Geography and history are interrelated for their mutual benefit.	1. The map makes for greater clarity.	1. The map shows the degree to which history is influenced by physical forces.
2. Map work sharpens the child's idea of distance, direction, and location.	2. It introduces an effective visual aid.	2. It helps in the visualization of certain phases of history.
3. Maps show the significance of such geographic factors as location, climate, and soil.	3. It provokes greater self activity of the pupil.	3. A vital aid in retaining certain kinds of facts of history is provided by the map.
	4. It unifies the fields of geography and history.	
	5. Economical forms of testing essential facts are afforded.	

10. *Correlation.*—Few subjects afford as many opportunities for vital correlations as history.[4]

"Poetry paints what history describes." Enlarge the scope of poetry to include all literature and the statement is just as true. Well-planned supplementary reading makes history vibrant with life. How much history does the child learn from "Rip Van Winkle," "The Legend of Sleepy Hollow," "The Great Stone Face," "Evangeline," *The Scarlet Letter, The Spy,* "Hiawatha," *Franklin's Autobiography, Up From Slavery, Uncle Tom's Cabin,* John Drinkwater's *Abraham Lincoln,* these delightful books that give the customs, the spirit, the ideals, the religious or the moral outlook of an earlier day? A well-planned course of study in history indicates for each grade its correlating literature. Where this is not done, teachers should obtain appropriate lists from librarians. These titles should be posted in a conspicuous place in the classroom or, better, should be mimeographed and distributed among the children. Every means should be used to encourage them to join the local library and to obtain these books.

Many a child has been introduced to the joys of reading through such correlation. Children who come to the library during the busy after-school hours frequently do not receive the attention of the librarian. They wander about, looking for reading material and leave with a book selected for its pictures or its cover. A few disappointments of this sort and they allow their membership in the library to lapse. Judicious recommendations of the sort described guide the young reader and keep alive a newly acquired love for reading. Such a child's class work in English will soon give evidence that intelligently directed reading produces

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[4] For fuller discussion of the place of the historical novel and the drama, see Chap. XV, pp. 232–236.

gratifying growth in expressional activities as well as in history.

Professional historians are not all agreed that such correlation with literature is entirely in the interests of historic accuracy. We must grant their contention that writers of drama or fiction take liberties with historic data. But with all the accuracy of the textbook and the arduousness of class drill how few of the specific facts of history do we remember. On the other hand, after reading well selected historic fiction we seem to retain a vivid impression of the general spirit of an age, of its very *Zeitgeist*. If the novel or the drama does not do violence to the dominant color or the larger aspects of the life of an age, it makes a genuine contribution to the pupils' knowledge of history despite an occasional but soon forgotten error of fact.

Manual training, music, and elementary science offer numerous opportunities for correlation with history that are as helpful as those offered by literature. The work in clay modeling, whittling, weaving, sewing, pictorial representation, and design can be grouped around historic centers. Children in a given school year may be assigned "Indian Life" as the center around which all manual activities must be related. The vessels, the mats, the garments, the ornaments, the tents, the tomahawks, and the bows and arrows are made. At the end of the year the pupils have a richer knowledge and a keener appreciation of the culture epoch these things reproduced. Similarly, the compass, the cotton gin, the steam engine, the telegraph, the telephone, the power-driven boat or train, wireless communication—all the important topics in elementary science —afford opportunity to make real the evolution of the mechanical side of civilization.

Those songs that commemorate historical events should be introduced in those grades which will make them cor-

relate most naturally with the history that is studied. The music thus intensifies the patriotic or emotional appeal of historic events. History rich in correlation is history that is alive. Such teaching stimulates imagination and gives it material for its picturing processes.

Problems for Study and Discussion

1. List the disciplinary values of history, geography, arithmetic, manual training, and literature. How do they differ? How do they agree? To what extent may the powers developed in history be utilized in other subjects, say, geography and arithmetic? What are the distinctive disciplinary values of history?

2. To what extent may history be learned through the senses? What means are at hand in a modern urban community to teach history through contacts with real objects? In a modern rural community?

3. Prepare an outline, as for a long discussion, of the topic, "Pictorial Aids in History and Civics."

4. What details would you stress to bring into relief the picture side of the following topics: the Boston Tea Party; the ratification of the new constitution; slave life on a southern plantation; the need to acquire Louisiana; the opening of the Panama Canal; the World Court; Japanese exclusion by Congress in 1924; the opening of the West?

5. List six topics in history that are frequently dramatized in class teaching. Which of these dramatizations, if any, have little or no pedagogic sanction? Which of these topics gain through dramatization?

6. Dramatization may lead to clearer comprehension, keener emotional reaction, and more expressive speech. Which of these ends are achieved in the dramatization of the following topics: Columbus convincing some of his mariner friends that the earth is round; Washington delivering his farewell to his officers; the Pilgrims signing the compact before landing; the purchase of Manhattan Island; Congress debating a famous bill?

7. Plan a pageant, suitable for execution by children of junior high school age, on "The Development of Communication." Describe each of the scenes or tableaus or floats. What other school subjects are interrelated as the pupils actually carry out the plan? What are the values, for history, in such pageantry?

8. List five or six topics that are effectively taught by class visits. Select one of these topics and tell: (*a*) how to lead up to the need for the visit; (*b*) what specific objectives should be given the class; (*c*) what guidance should be given during the visit; (*d*) in what ways the results of the experience may be utilized in class.

9. Examine maps found in commonly used textbooks in history. Criticize these maps: Are they simple enough? Do they present graphically one or many sets of facts? Do the authors refer to these maps frequently? Do the maps really add to the text? Do they invite study and analysis by the pupils? What changes would you make in these maps? Why?

10. Consult some of the recommended reading lists for elementary and junior high school pupils (see lists issued by the United States Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C. and the American Library Association, Chicago, Ill.). For each grade of the course of study you know best, list six books in fiction, drama, biography, or travel that correlate with the history that is prescribed.

CHAPTER IV

HISTORY AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF THOUGHT

The Thought of History Approximates the Thought of Everyday Life

For a long time the formal doctrines which held sway in education set up arithmetic and grammar as the two subjects of the school curriculum whose chief function was the development of thinking powers. Because history reproduced the past, its educational task was conceived to be the development of the thinking powers. Because history reproduced the past, its educational task was conceived to be psychological coefficient, to develop a mode of mental reaction applicable to all situations in life. Modern psychology teaches that mental power developed by a given experience can be applied to other experiences in direct proportion to their similarity. Every subject, properly taught, can develop capacity for thinking. Thinking differs as experiences differ. The carpenter thinks as he solves each of his difficulties. So do bank managers and editorial writers. But effective thinking in mechanical situations may not be of service in solving a financial problem. Hence, the most useful kinds of thinking exercises in the classroom are those that approximate most closely the thinking that is most necessary in the everyday affairs of life.

How little of the thinking of arithmetic or grammar do we need in the day's round of activities? But how different with history! Rational history is more than a succession of events; it is a series of causes and effects.

Throughout this study the student must distinguish what in the past is vital from what is accidental; he must decide upon the wisdom of a proposed plan of action; he must judge character by conduct and motives; he must recognize the element of justice in a situation. But these forms of thinking are precisely the kinds of thinking that make up the life of the average person. Judged by purely practical standards, the thinking developed in history is real and serves no minor part in solving our daily problems.

Unfortunately, there have grown up teaching practices in history which discourage thinking on the part of the pupil. What was the result of foresight and careful planning or of shrewd insight into a situation is presented as a chance event. How frequently have teachers repeated the story of the American acquisition of Louisiana which has neither reason nor fact as a basis. "Did we love France?" the teacher asks. On receiving the assurance of the class, she makes further inquiry and is told that this national affection had its origin in the days when France extended aid to the rebellious colonies. "Did we want to help her? Could we have helped her in her fight against England? To what dangers would we have been subjected had we given France financial or military help?" Here is a picture of Jefferson torn between his desire to help France and his fear of English power. "Luckily," the teacher explains, "a plan was evolved that did not lay us open to the charge of having violated our neutrality. We decided to buy Louisiana from France for $15,000,000 and thus aid a former ally." The purchase of Louisiana is thus interpreted as an act of complete American sacrifice. The story, so told, calls for little thinking. The children accept the facts and are ready for the next fable.

Why not present the situation as the successful outcome of cleverly conducted negotiations? So long as Louisiana was under the public administration of Spain we had no

cause for immediate concern. Word reached Jefferson that by the secret treaty of 1800 effected by Napoleon at San Ildefonso, Spain ceded to France the vast tract of land from the Gulf of Mexico to Canada and West of the Mississippi Valley to the Rockies. Jefferson was not happy when he learned that Louisiana was now to pass from the weak control of Spain to the militant administration of Napoleon. He feared, not without reason, that Napoleon's intention was to colonize this great valley. The lumber, the tobacco, the wheat, and the cattle of west Tennessee and Kentucky and the Northwest Territory could not reach the Atlantic Ocean by any route other than the Mississippi River or its great tributaries. In 1800, over 35 per cent of American commerce passed through New Orleans. With swords drawn between England and France, New Orleans would become a military city and could not, under the circumstances, give free passage to our goods. Jefferson did not enjoy writing to our minister, Robert Livingston, in Paris:

> There is on the globe, one single spot, the possessor of which is our natural and habitual enemy. It is New Orleans. . . . Spain might have retained it quietly for years . . . the day that France takes possession . . . seals the union of two nations. From that moment, we must marry ourselves to the British fleet and nation.[1]

At that time, 1802, Florida extended far enough west to include the mouth of the Mississippi River. Napoleon induced Spain to close this part of the river to our commerce. Jefferson secured an appropriation of $2,000,000 for the purchase of West Florida and New Orleans. Luckily for America, Napoleon suffered serious military reverses in the West Indies. This caused him to abandon his plan of a colonial empire. He realized fully that he could

[1] H. W. Derby, *The Works of Thomas Jefferson* (New York, 1861), Vol. IV, p. 431. Letter dated Washington, D. C., April 18, 1802.

spare none of his military resources for the holding of the newly acquired territory of Louisiana and by agreeing to sell the entire territory to the United States for $15,000,000, he would retain the friendship of America and prevent an alliance with England. There can be little doubt that he regarded this sale as a necessary sacrifice on his part, hoping some day to recoup his loss of American territory and revive his plan of an American colonial empire. The purchase of Louisiana is, therefore, the final step in a series of national crises, each of which was met with foresight and intelligence. Present this story as a play of mind upon mind; make each new turn of affairs a new problem, critical in nature, and call upon the class to anticipate the next step of the statesmen; invite the pupils to judge the wisdom of each move in the negotiations; let them compare their inferences with the actual facts and the conclusions expressed in their textbook. Again and again they err or find themselves baffled. Their text is scanned for a solution. In such a lesson thought flows freely, and logical thinking is developed through the solution of closely related national problems.

Who has not heard the school version of the purchase of Florida? The story that is told to the class runs somewhat as follows: the vast swampy peninsula belonged to Spain and was inhabited by savage Indians. We bore patiently Indian attacks and ravages on our boundary. At last, patience was exhausted when two Americans were killed. Jackson who was sent south to protect life and property completely lost his temper when he learned that these murders were instigated by British tradesmen. He marched his troops into Spanish territory and thus precipitated an international crisis. Luckily, Spain was in no position to take vigorous measures and listened to our suggestion to cede the peninsula of Florida to us for a monetary consideration.

If this is the true story of the purchase of Florida, why teach it? No vital issues are involved and no significant national need was served.

Present the actual facts that led to the purchase of Florida and again a most important national problem is happily solved. Explain that Florida in 1815 consisted of East Florida, the present State of Florida, and West Florida, a strip of land running along the Gulf of Mexico and including the mouth of the Mississippi River. We were then the proud possessors of the Mississippi Valley, but unfortunately the mouth of the Mississippi River and its adjoining territory were under Spanish ownership. We were compelled to dispute Spain's possession of West Florida. Lead the class to infer that we based our claim on the purchase of Louisiana. Spain made out a strong case, insisting that our purchase of French Louisiana in no way took from her the land ceded her by treaty in 1783. The class can readily see that we needed West Florida because it included not only the mouth of the Mississippi River, but also Mobile and Pensacola, excellent outlets for our cotton exports; that the ownership of West Florida would give us control to the limit of nature's boundary, that is, the shores of the Gulf of Mexico. President Madison authorized the seizure of most of West Florida in 1810. The following year Congress authorized the occupation of East Florida as well.

Spain, weakened by reverses at home, could not control the barbarous Indians of the Floridas. In 1817, Monroe ordered Jackson to pursue the Indians even into Spanish territory.[2] With Jackson, a word to the wise was more than sufficient. He proceeded to lay low Spanish strongholds and execute, after court-martial, two British subjects

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[2] See David S. Muzzey, *An American History* (Ginn & Co., 1917), p. 238.

who incited Indians to murder. He returned North and thus made good his promise, "Let it be signified to me through any channel that the possession of the Floridas would be desirable to the United States and in sixty days it will be accomplished." Jackson was neither punished nor censured for his acts. With Spain, weakened by Napoleon's victorious attacks, we rejoiced in the issue that was raised. We realized clearly that it would take little logic to convince Spain to cede the Floridas to us for such considerations as would guarantee her national dignity. Once more the story of territorial acquisition is based on an acute national situation and is the culmination of statesmanship that is farseeing. Here is an opportunity to ask a host of thought-provoking questions which will raise interesting ethical issues. This is real teaching because it stimulates mental activity and calls for training in careful thinking.

Suggestions for Arousing Thought in History

Our discussion thus far indicates that in teaching history innumerable opportunities present themselves for appealing to thought. It is no difficult task to raise history from a rote to a rational subject. We must now turn to the teaching practices designed to achieve this end. We shall state them in tabular form before discussing them at greater length:

1. Organize the content of history topically rather than chronologically.
2. Teach through problems.
3. Develop the subject through projects.
4. Interpret the events of a period in terms of the underlying tendencies.
5. Encourage logical inferences and causal expectations.
6. Trace the geographic influences upon the development of mankind.

7. Introduce frequent carefully planned reviews by
   (*a*) Comparisons.
   (*b*) Correlations.
   (*c*) Establishing a different sequence.
   (*d*) Presenting new problems.
   (*e*) Studying selected biographies.
   (*f*) Evaluating each of the two sides of a dispute.

The succeeding chapters discuss these means of attaining the thought values of history.

Problems for Study and Discussion

The student is referred to the end of Chapter IX, page 102, for a list of problems for further study.

CHAPTER V

TEACHING TO THINK THROUGH TOPICAL HISTORY

Topical Rather than Chronological Organization

THE thought value of history can be attained by organizing facts topically rather than chronologically, thus making the logic of human conduct rather than the accident of time the guiding principle of development. An act of Congress, a battle, the birth of a new party, the development of new machines or a significant change in social life is no spontaneous occurrence. An isolated fact is not really understood. The function of history, Butler maintains, is to give "a third dimension to the superficial area of knowledge that each individual acquires through his own experience."[1]

An illustration of chronological sequence is found in many standard school texts which develop the period of 1815–1860 in American history by setting forth the important events in the successive administrations. Similarly they teach the progress of the Civil War by the following sequence of topics:

LINCOLN ADMINISTRATION

1. 1860; Causes of the War
   (*a*) The Remote Causes
   (*b*) The Immediate Causes

[1] Henry Johnson, *The Teaching of History*, "Introduction."

2. The Military Events of 1860
3. The Events of 1861
4. The Events of 1862
5. The Events of 1863
6. The Events of 1864
7. 1865 and Victory for the Union

Events are unrelated to their causes or their consequences; they appear, apparently without justifying cause, and drop from the story with as little reason. Continuity of thought, persistence of human endeavor, planning for the attainment of an ultimate goal—these are all lost. When the history of slavery is taught by administrations, the pupil studies the Missouri Compromise in 1820 and then hears little about slavery until 1850. The pupil infers that the problems of slavery were settled for a period of thirty years. He fails to perceive that these years witnessed the growth of acute sectional bitterness, the development of the Abolitionists, the "Underground System," partisanship so intense that a bloody conflict became inevitable. Taught chronologically, as is indicated by the tabulated arrangement, no pupil can understand the meaning of any of the great campaigns of the Civil War. Battles are not spontaneous conflicts dotting the map. They are part of a plan with an urgent objective. By the chronological method the child is subjected to an ever changing military panorama of fighting, in any one year, on the coast, on the Mississippi River, in Georgia, in Pennsylvania. Confusion is inevitable. Similarly, the causes of the Civil War cannot be understood if they are not introduced long before Lincoln's inauguration. Although Lincoln had much to do with the conduct of the war, he had little to do with the actual causes of it.

Let us develop these two important periods topically. The period of 1815–1860 presents definite and easily recognizable streams of events. All that is worth remembering

in this period belongs to one or more of these currents of events:

1. The Question of Slavery
2. States' Rights
3. Territorial Expansion
4. The Tariff Struggles
5. Great Industrial and Transportational Improvements
6. Foreign Relations

Teach the slavery question first. Review briefly: 1619, the introduction of slavery; development of slavery in colonial days; slavery in the North; slavery and the triangle of trade; The Revolutionary War and its relation to slavery; the importation of slaves forbidden by the Constitution after 1808. The story of slavery is now carried beyond this last date: Missouri Compromise of 1820; the bitterness of the feeling aroused by the debates; the rise of the Abolitionists; antislavery sentiment in the North; Garrison, Beecher, and the leaders of the opposition; the underground system and runaway slaves; slave markets and living conditions of slaves; the Fugitive Slave Law; the Compromise of 1850 and admission of California; Douglas' Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854 with its "squatter sovereignty" repealing the Missouri Compromise; the Kansas struggles; the Dred Scott Decision. By this time we have built up a picture of growing sectionalism, distrust, and even hatred. A serious break, civil war, seems inevitable. It may take all the lessons of a school month to conclude the study of this great question, but when the task is complete, the picture is complete and we have established in the pupil's mind a rational chain of events.

Now turn to the second question, state *v.* national sovereignty. Review the development of local autonomy in the Colonial Period; the zealous guard that was kept over colonial prerogatives; insistence on colonial rights

prompting the colonies to band together to maintain various acts which cut off trade with the home country, and finally aroused the colonies to armed resistance. But the Revolutionary War was fought for the independence of each of the thirteen colonies, and not for the independence of the United States which did not then exist. Hence a long struggle to establish an enduring central government can readily be anticipated, and, when established, it is conceivable that not a few of the states will cling to the notion of the supremacy of the state. At the Hartford Convention the northern states maintain the right of secession. Nullification of 1832 shows that the principle of state supremacy is still stoutly upheld despite the settlement of the immediate issue. Slavery cannot therefore be abolished by a Congressional act. The principle is brought forward again and again until swords are drawn by those who hold opposite and irreconcilable views of a great question. Again, we see that the Civil War was in the making for generations. Its causes are sought not in 1860, not in Lincoln's Administration, but in the many years that preceded the great struggle. Once more, cause and effect, and not the accidental succession of administrations, determines the organization of historic data.

The next topic is now taken up and the children see the gradual growth of the United States—the thirteen colonies, the Northwest Territory, Louisiana, Florida, Texas and the land ceded by Mexico, Washington, and Oregon. The subject "Territorial Expansion" is developed in such a way that there is begotten in the mind a highly unified impression. Teach territorial growth by administrations and the acquisition of one territory is forgotten because of the events that intervene before the next territory is studied. Throughout the development of this topic the child sees the resentment felt by North and South as each acquisition augmented the territorial holdings of one or the other side.

Again it is evident that a day of final reckoning is inevitable.

In this way the pupil studies the story of the successive tariff acts, of the great improvements in transportation and in manufacturing, and of foreign problems. Each of these topics is taught completely, each cause precedes its effect, each event follows factors that cause it and thus the whole is thoroughly integrated and its parts logically interrelated. With such an organization of facts, children are taught to think from cause to effect, or from event back to cause and thus to trace the logic of the past.

In a previous relation we saw that in teaching the Civil War chronologically the pupil does not see the logic that governs military events nor the forces that determine the development of a campaign. Ask the pupils themselves to construct the plan of war for the North. "What would you do first?" the teacher asks. The class decides, first, that the plan formulated must insure victory. What shall that plan be? By a series of well prepared questions, elicit the importance of cotton. The South would be sure to sell cotton for revenue, hence the first step is to prevent the South from exporting cotton by blockading her harbors.

Further questioning established the fact that the Mississippi River cut the Confederacy in half, and that it would be well to obtain complete control of it. Similarly, a second wedge might be driven from Tennessee to the coast. Now it remains to draw out that the capital, Richmond, was the seat of all Confederate authority and that the capture of that city would injure the South. In twenty minutes the class has its threefold plan: first, to blockade the harbors of the South; second, to cut the South into sections by the capture of the Mississippi and the occupation of a line to the Atlantic; third, to capture Richmond. Now teach the Civil War by developing these three campaigns. The first ended in 1862 with the fight between the *Monitor* and

the *Merrimac;* the second, in 1863, with the fall of Vicksburg; the third, with the fall of Richmond. What appeared to be a confusing succession of events has become a clearly organized whole. Each military encounter is explained by the logic that directs the entire campaign; each campaign is a logical story that starts at the beginning of the war and runs to a natural end. Topical development of history results not only in easier retention and readier recall of data, but also in better and richer comprehension.

Problems for Study and Discussion

The student is referred to the end of Chapter IX, page 102, for a list of problems for further study.

CHAPTER VI

TEACHING TO THINK THROUGH PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS

Teach History through Problems

An outstanding advantage of topical over chronological development is that history can more readily be presented through a succession of problems. A problem, as used in teaching, is a situation that invites solution or challenges the mind. Many of the most effective problems are not necessarily practical. They have those qualities which stir curiosity and evoke maximum mental activity.

Contrast these two modes of developing the outstanding facts of the Critical Period, 1783–1789. First, by the topical method the facts would be developed as follows: (*a*) an explanation of the Critical Period; (*b*) tracing the origin of the opposing views; (*c*) listing the main issues of debate; (*d*) analyzing the pros and cons in each debate; (*e*) learning the compromise that was finally adopted.

Second, by the problem method the facts would be elicited in the following way: (*a*) present to the class the statement, "Why is it said that our Constitution is the result of struggle and compromise?" (*b*) The class is led to admit its inability to answer the question. (*c*) How can we find out? (*d*) The class decides that we must consider the proceedings of the convention that framed the Constitution. (*e*) The textbook is now used, and a number of serious questions are found to be before the convention. (*f*) Each question is analyzed, the claims of both sides balanced, and the wisdom of the compromise noted. (*g*)

The class concludes that the Constitution of the United States is not a one-man document—on the contrary, it is the expression of the composite judgment of wise and far-seeing statesmen.

Other problems readily suggest themselves. To introduce a lesson on the causes of colonization in America, ask, "Why has it been said that the American colonies were the safety valves for Europe?" To explain the reasons which made slavery flourish in the South, begin the lesson with "The question of slavery was one of geography, not of right and wrong," or "Why was West Virginia loyal to the Union and Virginia, a leader in the Confederacy?" To teach the reasons for the commercial and industrial supremacy of the North over the South in 1860, invite the class to find an adequate explanation of the statement, "One of the great evils of slavery was that it kept the South industrially backward." To teach the causes of the War of 1812, ask, "Why is the Revolutionary War called the war for political independence and the War of 1812, the war for commercial freedom?" To review the period of 1815–1860 let the class formulate answers to the question, "Why is the period of 1815–1860 called the period that made for Civil War?" To review Burgoyne's campaign, let the children decide, "What would have happened had Burgoyne won?"

Advantages of Problem Solving.—(1) Each pupil is given a mind set, a mind ready to think along a definite line and toward a definite objective. (2) Active pupil coöperation is sought. (3) Each lesson begins at the point of contact, at the place where it touches the child's life and interests. By its very definition, a problem situation is a challenge to the mind. (4) When the class has reached a satisfying answer to the initial question, it knows that it has successfully completed its task. (5) Problems give convenient centers for grouping facts and thus develop

incidentally, but none the less effectively, the power to organize material. Throughout the lesson the pupils have a standard in terms of which they select their facts. (6) Pupils learn to use textbooks rationally—for reference, for verification, and for definite data on a specific question—rather than solely for rote study or slavish memorization. (7) These problems furnish an outlet for the ability of gifted children. (8) Throughout these problem lessons, pupils learn that knowledge must be applied—that it must give us more accurate impressions and more reliable conclusions—that knowledge is not acquired merely for the sake of acquisition. Aside from its application, a fact has no significance. (9) And, finally, it is apparent that this mode of history teaching is a definite method of teaching pupils to think in terms of situations taken from the life of the race.

Limitations of Problem Teaching.—The organization of a problem recitation will be set forth in a later chapter devoted to the different types of the recitation. At this point we seek merely to caution the teacher that there are other means of developing thought than through problems, and these must be used also. Unless a natural and highly motivating problem suggests itself it is better to turn to other teaching practices.

And, finally, much of the history that is dramatic narrative, the Boston Tea Party, for example, or the history that is taught essentially for its emotional appeal, should not be burdened with problems. To present Valley Forge as a problem for sixth-grade pupils, gives an unnatural intellectual color to a situation that is altogether emotional.

Teach History through Projects

A project, in teaching, is a unit of purposeful experience. Planning the historic pageant set forth at the end of the preceding chapter constitutes a class project in his-

tory. The meaning of project will be sharpened by contrasting it with the problem.

Problem	Project
1. A limited experience that challenges the mind. It can usually be solved in a single class period.	1. A whole unit of purposeful experiences presented in its entirety. It affords work for a series of lessons, often running for weeks or for the entire semester.
2. It is complete in itself and usually calls for little knowledge outside of its own subject.	2. It is resolved into a series of problems. Projects correlate the work of many very different subjects.
3. It may be based purely on a hypothetical situation. It is considered effective if it invites solution. "What if Burgoyne had won?" is an illustration of a suppositious problem.	3. Projects are always sections of life. Their background is real and their situations are thoroughly practical.

Kinds of Projects in History.—There is no fixed number of classes of projects. The classification here presented is designed to help the teacher devise, in sufficient number, suitable projects for grade work.

Projects may be dramatic, pictorial, manual, or informational.

1. *Dramatic.* The pageants suggested in Chapter III are examples of this type. It may be well to plan a play or scenario of some of the stirring events of history, such as "Napoleon on St. Helena," "Holding the Pass at Thermopylæ," "De Soto and the Mississippi," "Victory over Disease at Panama," "The Expedition of Lewis and Clark," "America's Sacrifice in the World War," or "Sailing with the Puritans." Any one of these dramatic projects necessitates gathering and systematizing facts, the

development of a plan, the writing of the play, the planning of the costumes, scenery, and stage settings, designing invitations—a long and educative routine. Here we have highly correlated work in composition, history, drawing, music, and manual training.

2. *Pictorial projects* were suggested in the discussion of general pictorial aids. Let pupils gather pictures which show the evolution of farming from the crudest implements to the most modern machinery, or the development of transportation from the human carrier to the present commercial airplanes. These pictures are arranged, pasted into books, and suitably described. Here again composition, reading, and history are vitally interrelated.

3. *Manual projects* are popular in many schools. Thus the class that studies the Colonial Period decides to reproduce as many articles of the day as circumstances will permit. The girls make costumes for a dramatization of "Myles Standish." The boys make small tables, lanterns of colonial design, door knockers, or any simple implement of the day. Very frequently dramatic and manual projects are combined and the values of project teaching are thus intensified.

4. *Informational projects* are suitable for higher grades and frequently arise in a need to understand a current event. In the fall when elections are held, a desire to understand party and party platforms may lead to a study of a topic such as the development of parties in the United States. Similarly, when tariff struggles are occupying the attention of Congress and newspapers report the progress of pending tariff legislation, it is well to study the tariff question in the history of the United States. When newspapers write leading editorials about our policy of immigration and when this problem is before Congress it is well to take up the project which seeks to ascertain the composition of our population.

Values of Project Teaching.—Projects possess the same teaching values as problems. In addition, we may add that they serve to correlate and unify the subjects in the curriculum. With the growing complexity of life there has come a corresponding enlargement of the curriculum through the introduction of new subjects. With the time devoted to elementary education not materially increased, teaching becomes superficial and subjects remain unrelated to one another. Projects reduce the effort to obtain mastery over the field of necessary knowledge and by their interrelation of subjects make for more thorough understanding.

Project teaching develops power to visualize a problem, to analyze it, to find pertinent information, to organize data, and to come to a conclusion. This surely is the very essence of good training in the kind of thinking that is required in social experiences. But in problem and project teaching, the power of thinking is developed, not from imitating the thought processes of the teacher as in arithmetic or grammar, but rather from the self-expression occasioned by highly socialized recitations.

Limitations of Projects in History.—Vital as is the project in teaching, it does not lend itself to the mastery of formal subject matter that must be learned by rote. Dates, names, places, and specific facts are learned most conveniently by intelligent drills designed to reduce this knowledge to the level of habit.

When projects are extensive and include many problems, the class often forgets the original problem. Teaching then proceeds not on rational motivation, but on the authority of the teacher. We must also bear in mind that what may seem to us a real social need, a vital unit of very purposeful experience, may still remain for the young pupil an arbitrary experience arbitrarily imposed. What if active, noisy boys and girls fail to regard as a socially

useful project the making of an illustrative book portraying the development of communication from earliest times to the present? We must constantly guard against reading our attitudes into youth lest we develop pedagogical procedures that are as artificial as severe Herbartianism.

Problems for Study and Discussion

The student is referred to the end of Chapter IX, page 102, for a list of problems for further study.

CHAPTER VII

TEACHING TO TRACE UNDERCURRENTS IN HISTORY

Interpret Specific Events in Terms of Underlying Tendencies

EVERY age or epoch in history shows a continuation of the prime forces of preceding periods and also gives evidence of new tendencies. Every age is a transition; it is a bridge that connects what was with what is coming.

To teach children to think in history, help them to find the underlying forces in each age. Specific events are thus unified by the general characteristics of each age, and the old is constantly explaining the development of the new. A few illustrations will make clear the value of this teaching practice.

What to Stress in 1815–1860.—Early in the study of the period of 1815–1860, stress the fact that this is the period of growing sectionalism. As each important topic is studied—slavery, tariff, territorial acquisition—the child can readily be led to perceive that each set of circumstances intensified the mutual jealousies and the hatreds of North and South and, in a lesser degree, of East and West.

Growing Coöperation in Later Colonial History.—In teaching the Pre-Revolutionary Period, help children to understand that the tendency towards coöperation in the colonies is the historic nucleus of this period. Specific events are then analyzed to ascertain how they contribute toward the growth of common colonial interests that are opposed to England's expressed policy. Thus it is seen

that the commercial policy of England was in conflict with colonial interests. The passage of the Navigation Laws under Charles II (1660–1663) and the restriction of the woolen trade in the reign of William and Mary showed that the interests of the mother country and those of the colonies were clearly divergent. These trade interferences led to extensive smuggling by colonials, and it is clear that these enterprises in violation of laws deemed oppressive could not have been carried out without colonial coöperation. In the disagreements between colonies and the royal governors, England's policy of invariably upholding her appointed officials led to a common grievance and common protests. The dangers from French and Indians led further to colonial coöperation for the common defense. The Stamp Act "brought in its train colonial correspondence, a congress, non-importation societies, Sons and Daughters of Liberty, and a whirlwind of indignation."[1] The tea tax, the Boston Tea Party, and the Boston Port Bill are among the many factors that taught many colonists, simply and clearly, the need of a plan of coöperative action. It was this lesson of coöperation, if not unification, that explains, finally, the victory of an enduring Union over the puerile Confederation in 1789.

How to Group the Colonies.—Another effective illustration of the need of tracing underlying tendencies is found in colonial history. The colonial history of New England is the story of the development of decentralized and confused control. Bitter religious quarrels caused groups to break away from old communities to form new colonies. In industry, the variety of opportunities was so great that different groups soon arose, each championing its own trade interests.

The history of the southern colonies is the story of the

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[1] Wm. H. Mace, *Method in History* (Ginn & Co., 1902), p. 108.

development of highly centralized government with definite control. This was natural, for the ruling class of the southerners was essentially of one religion and one occupation. They followed the English church and took an inordinate pride in their large land holdings. The great families engaged in agriculture and depended on slave labor, either of the blacks, whom they owned, or the whites, who were indentured. There was, therefore, a wide gulf between landowner and toiler that did not exist in the North between employer and employee. In the South the lower classes were really neglected. Schools were few, communities scattered, and there was no fellowship outside the caste. The landed aristocracy was in the saddle. It governed in matters of religion as well as politics.

In the middle colonies these two tendencies are discernible and blended as circumstances decided. Here we find a marked diversity of people—English, Dutch, Swedish, German, Scotch, Irish, and Welsh. Segregation according to nationality was not uncommon. Those colonies near the South, like New Jersey and Delaware, were influenced by the landed aristocracy and developed in the southern fashion, whereas New York became more like a New England colony.

The pedagogic application is simple. The colonies should be grouped into these three classes for teaching purposes and the fundamental character of each group should be evolved as early in the work as possible. The children will understand the coming of the Revolution much better, for, under the controlling circumstances, the North resented outside interference and the South was too covetous of its own power to brook control from England. The Revolutionary War was inevitable. Its causes lie deep-rooted in time long before 1775. The renewed enforcement of the Navigation Laws under Grenville in 1764; the Townshend Acts of 1767, with their taxes on certain colonial imports

to help pay the salaries of those officials who were included in the "American Establishment"; the chastisement of Massachusetts through the Intolerable Acts of 1774, which closed the port of Boston and moved the capital to Salem, which prohibited town meetings (except for elections) without the consent of the governor, which almost annulled the charter of Massachusetts, and which made it legal to quarter soldiers in any town in Massachusetts; the Stamp Act; the Boston Tea Party; these were only last minute irritations that let loose the resentment of a century.

Stress the Growth of Nationalism in 1789–1812; 1812–1824.—The textbooks most commonly used in our schools set forth an array of facts for the years 1789–1812, and again from 1812 to 1824, that is truly staggering. Pupils may learn them, but they soon forget them. Teachers who have not taught these periods for a year or so must go back to the books to refresh their memories. Therefore, in teaching these periods it is necessary to bring out in bold relief the underlying tendency, the growth and recognition of national authority. The facts are the twigs and the underlying tendency is the branch.

In these early years local interests were always set above strictly national needs. The excise tax, the first tariff bill, the Whiskey Insurrection are significant only as they express the new national power. So, too, the Hamiltonian financial policy and the Funding and Assumption Bills (assumption of state debts) must not be taught in themselves as vital historic or economic truths, but as further evidence of the new power, nationalism, that is making itself felt.

Our foreign relations hastened the growth of a sense of nationality. At first America was intensely interested in the French Revolution, but the attending excesses alienated many and made some ready to support England. To avoid complications, Washington issued a Proclamation of Neu-

trality and laid the foundation of a foreign policy which is perhaps the governing force in America's relations to Europe in 1924. It taught the lesson that America must keep out of European politics. "Looking backward . . . it was a new declaration of independence—while looking forward, it was a new prophecy of nationality."[2] While the feeling of the average citizen ran toward France and against England, the support which Washington enjoyed in dismissing Genet shows clearly that the authority of the nation was accepted.

Interpret the Louisiana Purchase as an evidence of growing nationality. If national power had not been recognized, the purchase would not have been achieved. The new territory was to be under federal control. The new states to be developed out of this territory must inevitably be peopled from the original thirteen states. It was seen by New England that the growth of new communities would enhance the prestige of the national government and diminish that of the old states. New England was a bitter opponent of this purchase and muttered, under her breath, threats of secession. The Federalists based their objection on the theory of strict construction while the Democrats upheld the view of loose construction, thus taking the position formerly sponsored by their adversaries.

The War of 1812 shows that the spirit of nationalism was now established. To be sure, events occurred which gave evidence of the old allegiance to locality rather than to the federal government. Among these we must mention (1) the organized interference with the floating of government loans; (2) expressions of protest in New York and New England against the war; (3) delaying the call for state militia; and (4) the Hartford Convention. Nevertheless, the war shows a national feeling strong enough to

[2] *Ibid.* p. 160.

resent encroachment on our commercial rights and especially on our national sovereignty. The war itself intensified the feeling of nationality and, like most wars, gave enduring power to the forces that brought it about. This is evidenced by the acceptance of the decisions of the Supreme Court, the growing control of federal government in the development of interstate commerce and commercial routes and the increasing demand for a tariff to protect new industries. Nor must we fail to emphasize the new American literature which breathed the spirit of democracy and sought by oratorical and emotional appeal to stir a deep sense of national pride.

Every event taught in these two periods, 1789–1812, and 1812–1824, must be interpreted so that it reflects either the weakening of old loyalties to the state, or the growing allegiance to the nation. The numerous events that so frequently are presented without organization are thus tied together by their underlying logic. If the specific facts are forgotten, not much is lost so long as their underlying significance is retained.

Problems for Study and Discussion

The student is referred to the end of Chapter IX, page 102, for a list of problems for further study.

CHAPTER VIII

TEACHING TO TRACE LOGICAL CONSEQUENCES AND GEOGRAPHIC INFLUENCES

Encourage Logical Inference and Causal Expectation

MANY topics in history lend themselves to a highly causal organization, for every event brings its inevitable consequence. Let us assume that a seventh- or an eighth-year class has had two or three lessons on the struggle to supplant the disintegrating Articles of Confederation with a strong constitution designed to establish a vigorous federal government. The outstanding issues have been considered and the required number of states has become signatory members of the then United States. A little time is spent describing the celebrations attending the acceptance of the Constitution and then the major question must be answered, namely, what are the distinguishing features of this great document? One way to find the outstanding provisions of the new document is to read the Constitution and make an outline of it. But teachers who have tried this procedure know that the lesson becomes highly formalized, for the language is technical and the children soon lose interest. Use the Constitution as a means of verifying inferences that the class can reasonably be expected to make. Ask pupils to tell the provisions they would have written into the Constitution had they been members of the convention that sought to draft an instrument which would be free from the serious weaknesses of the Articles of Confederation. In a class where such a lesson was

given, the blackboard work, summarizing the discussion, presented the following appearance:

BLACKBOARD SUMMARY OF TYPICAL INFERENCE LESSON

Weaknesses of the Articles of Confederation (Known Facts).	Expected Provisions in the Constitution (Inference by the Class).	Verification by Reference to the Constitution.
1. No chief executive or directing officer.	1. Provide for chief executive officer. We know this to be the President.	1. See Article II, Section i.
2. Congress had no right to levy taxes.	2. Give Congress right to tax the people.	2. See Article I, Section viii.
3. Congress could not maintain an army or a navy.	3. Give Congress power to support an army and a navy.	3. See Article I, Section viii, pars. 12, 13, 14, 15 and 16.
4. Congress could advise but not force action.	4. Give Congress power to have needed laws carried out.	4. See Article I, Section viii.
5. No court to decide question of a national character.	5. Provide for a system of courts.	5. See Article III.
6. No control of commerce among the states.	6. Congress to have power to regulate commerce among the states.	6. See Article I, Section viii, par. 3.
7. Each state made its own foreign treaty.	7. One treaty making power. From newspapers we know that it is the Secretary of State, the President, and the Senate.	7. See Article I, Section x, and Article II, Section ii, par. 2.
etc.	etc.	etc.

Here then is a topic developed on the basis of causal expectation. Most of the inferences were agreed on only

after debate and verification by reference to the Constitution. Although the Constitution was not read from beginning to end, the pupil was made familiar with its organization. Throughout the lesson there was vigorous thinking and spirited discussion. It is obvious that children learned not only to reason from cause to effect, but also to subject all inferences to an acid test before writing them down as fact.

Let us turn to another lesson on a very different historical situation. In teaching the character of the settlers of Virginia and of the Plymouth Colony, follow the same causal arrangement. Knowing the character of the settlers, what results may be anticipated? How shall inferences be verified? The blackboard results of such a lesson summarize the class discussion and indicate clearly the coöperative development of the conclusions.

Character of the Virginia Settlers (Known Facts).	Results Expected (The Inferences).	Verification by Reference to Class Text.
1. Half were unused to any labor.	1. Unable to do the necessary work: build huts, plant, make roads.	1. True. The text bears out this conclusion.
2. Most in search of gold and easy fortune.	2. Lazy and refused to work unless forced.	2. True.
3. Most were idle and shiftless.	3. Much illness and death. Would succeed only if they had a strong enough leader.	3. Exactly what happened. True. See what happened when Captain Smith left.

Here is a lesson that is very instructive because effect does not follow cause as simply as was anticipated. The class reasoned without all the facts.

Character of the Plymouth Settlers (Known Facts).	Results Expected (The Inferences).	Verification by Reference to Class Text.
1. Lovers of religious freedom.	1. Willing and able workers.	1. True.
2. Ready to pay any price for a home where they could worship as they pleased.	2. Built houses and planted.	2. True.
3. Many were skilled workers.	3. Had an easier time.	3. No.
4. All ready to meet hardships of pioneer life.	4. Colony flourished from the beginning.	4. No. The class text does not bear out the last two inferences.
5. Were not interested in gold or short route to Cathay.		

The class was puzzled! The expected did not happen! The problem assigned for study was to discover the causes of the error in reasoning. In the succeeding history lesson, it was comparatively simple to obtain from the pupils that the rigors of New England winters and the less friendly Indians were two serious factors that had not been taken into account. With these added facts, the children were able to reach a satisfactory conclusion. It will be helpful for the teacher to survey the whole field of the history that he must teach in the current semester in search of topics that can be presented on the basis of causal expectation. In such teaching procedure, children learn more than historic data which are destined to be forgotten. They develop power to relate cause and effect; they are taught to take a critical attitude towards conclusions which must always be modified in the light of revealing facts; they are taught to use a book intelligently.

Trace the Geographic Influences

Through the history we teach, children should be shown that mankind does not always shape its own destiny; that, too often, we are the obedient agents of overpowering physical forces. Just as geography preceded history in normal evolution, so we must teach the geographic aspect of the human story before the historic. "The geography of to-day is the history of to-morrow." The geography of yesterday is an important causative factor of the history of to-day.

The simple geographic forces that we must constantly trace in history are (1) remoteness; (2) proximity; (3) barriers; (4) nature's paths or highways; (5) climate. Students of civilization like Buckle have gone so far as to condition our entire intellectual and spiritual development on the geographic influences of the physical environment. Belief is here undoubtedly carried beyond fact, but much of the theory is undoubtedly true.

The Law of Remoteness.—Let children understand that physical remoteness produces spiritual alienation; that remoteness of territory brings remoteness of interest and a weakening of loyalties. "This is the long arm reach which weakens the arm of authority no matter what the race, or the country, or the epoch."[1] The Thirteen Colonies were too far from England to bear that authority willingly and patiently. England was too far from the Thirteen Colonies to take a sympathetic view of the colonial attitude. The southern and trans-Alleghanian colonies were, before the Civil War, too far from the North to submit to its attempted domination. History is replete with proof that the long arm of authority is always weak. The pitfall of reasoning that we must guard against is the unwarranted

[1] Ellen C. Semple, *Influence of Geographic Environment* (Henry Holt & Co., 1911), p. 3.

assumption that remoteness is the only factor that accounts for a particular occurrence.

The Law of Proximity.—The converse of the law of remoteness is as true as the law of remoteness itself. Physical proximity leads to mutual understanding and similar geographic factors beget coöperation. Study the map and the ultimate ownership of Texas seems inescapable. Texas was geographically closer to United States territory than to Mexico. The law of proximity may explain why a speaker of the House of Representatives once introduced a bill in Congress authorizing the study of means of acquiring Canada. England and Japan owe much of their power to their proximity to the continents of Europe and Asia. Australia, with all its promise, is still relatively unimportant because of its remoteness from the grand divisions.

In the Civil War, the line between North and South did not run east and west. Agricultural Virginia went to the Confederacy. West Virginia remained in the Union. The farms in the hilly lands and her mines made slave labor unnecessary. Not a finer moral insight but a geographic environment linking her to the North explains West Virginia's allegiance.

The Law of Barriers and Nature's Highways.—It is obvious that mountains, valleys, and rivers have played a significant part in the story of mankind. The Rocky Mountains delayed the development of the Pacific Coast until the lure of gold in 1849 was strong enough to tempt man to battle with Nature's obstacles. With the increasing application of science, these barriers assume less importance than in the past but they must still be reckoned with, for they retard transportation and tend to make it expensive.

Rivers and valleys, on the other hand, have always determined the line of march of civilization. How can we

account for the location of the many railroads that have seized every available pass through the hills of New Jersey? Why was the Panama Canal built, not across the narrowest part of the isthmus, but along a route decidedly longer? Why does the New York Central, running from New York to Buffalo, go to Albany and then to Lake Erie, making a right angle when the hypothenuse, a straight line from New York to Buffalo is shorter? The New York Central Railroad to-day follows through the Mohawk Valley the paths made by the Indians. The natural groove from the mouth of the Hudson River to the elbow of the Delaware River was successively the old Indian path, the old Dutch Road between New Amsterdam and Delaware, and then the Kings Highway from New York to Philadelphia. To-day, the Pennsylvania Railroad still follows in the paths of the old Indians.

In the study of maps, stress was laid on the explanation of military campaigns, territorial development, tariff struggles and the like through a study of governing geographic influences. Here we are only increasing the applications of the same principle.

Law of Climate.—One of Buckle's three laws of civilization is climate. The torrid zone is the zone of inefficiency, for climate there produces mental and physical enervation. The arctic zones are the zones of precariousness. With mind completely absorbed by the problems of sustaining life, civilization cannot thrive. The temperate zones have been the setting for humanity's highest development.

We make innumerable historic explanations by reference to climate. Much of the difference between northern and southern colonies we lay at the door of climate. Slavery we explain as a climatic rather than a moral question. The building of the Panama Canal we consider a feat not so much in mechanical as in sanitary engineering, for it

stands as a signal victory over adverse climate and its attending disease.

Geographic Influence on Mental Development

Buckle explains civilization by three laws—climate, soil, and topography. So long as all of man's energies go to supplying bodily needs, civilization does not rise above the daily routine of securing life's necessities. When there is a surplus of food, then man's energies are, in a measure, liberated from hunting, fishing, and planting, and invested in the satisfaction of religious and æsthetic cravings. But soil, topography, and climate determine whether man's life is to be precarious or whether it will carry some assurance for the morrow.

In similar vein, Buckle argues that in those environs where mountains are high, where gorges are very deep, where waterfalls thunder from mountain sides, and where storms are terrifying in their fury or heat, scorching in its intensity, the mind is awe-struck by the scale on which nature's forces function. The inhabitants of such localities are naturally imaginative and given to superstition and fears. Nature is too big to be studied. Nature, therefore, overwhelms the mind. The Spaniard and the Hindu are illustrations, Buckle argues, and the Swiss would be like them were it not for the constant influx of people from other parts of the world where the manifestations of nature are less overwhelming. These visitors, like the Greeks of old, coming from an environment where nature can be studied, are thoughtful and critical.

In dealing with people who, like some of our colonial settlers, must live close to nature, it is well to impress upon pupils, when facts warrant, that the hills are usually not conducive to the rapid development of civilization. Weather is rigorous, food is scanty, days are filled with anxiety, and life itself becomes a long dread of the specter

of want. All these eat into the soul. The isolation of the mountains makes for desolation, not inspiration.

But how different in the alluvial plains of temperate regions. The soil is rich, nature is not reluctant to give of her bounty, to-morrow holds promise instead of fear, transit is easy, and people come and go and exchange ideas. The force of life is free to concern itself with spiritual rather than material matters.

There is much in this reasoning that is fallacious and more that has no adequate basis of fact. We must be ever watchful for exceptions to these influences of brute nature. Physical forces are not the only influences that mold man. Hereditary tendencies and the liberal stock of instincts, native interests, and capacities must surely be reckoned with in the shaping of the human mind. Physical forces are significant in proportion to the primitiveness of life.

Problems for Study and Discussion

The student is referred to the end of Chapter IX, page 102, for a list of problems for further study.

CHAPTER IX

TEACHING TO THINK THROUGH PROPER REVIEWS

THE review is a specialized lesson in which old knowledge is presented from a new point of view. Reviews therefore appeal to thought rather than to pure rote memory. They make for thoroughness, for they enrich the meaning of old knowledge. Reviews should therefore be conducted at the completion of important topics or subjects. The drill lesson for fixing associations by the force of repetitions is discussed in a later part of the book.

These more intense, more thorough and more thoughtful *re-views*, second views, can be given in the following ways:

1. By comparison
2. By correlation
3. By a new sequence
4. By a new problem
5. By a study of selected biographies of an epoch
6. By evaluating the contending sides of a dispute

These are more than means of conducting review lessons. They are modes of teaching which may be followed in developing new lessons.

1. Reviews through Comparison

The content of history lends itself to interesting comparisons and contrasts. Each element of the comparison is not merely recalled; it is put into relation to the others and many new aspects of old knowledge are thus revealed.

1 Name of Colony	2 When Settled	3 Where Settled	4 By Whom	5 Under Leadership of	6 Causes for Coming	7 Kind of Settler	8 Government Developed

An effective lesson on Jefferson had just been completed. A fortnight before, an equally effective lesson on Hamilton had been taught. The pupils understood the principles and the attitude of each of these men. But the review lesson in which the class formulated the definite points of contrast made the distinctiveness of each man's political philosophy stand out in high relief. The information in the contrasting columns on the board gave the pupils an insight into Jeffersonian democracy that they did not possess before.

Compare the causes of the War of 1812 with those of the War for Independence, or the causes of the World War with those of the War of 1812, and the understanding of the forces that produced these great conflicts is unmistakably sharpened and refined. Compare the attitudes of the North and South toward tariff issues prior to the Civil War with the recent attitudes of East and West toward tariff policy. Now the class understands the opposing interests of industrial and agricultural communities as never before.

At times it is helpful to develop a whole period of history by continuous comparisons. After studying the first colonial settlement, say Virginia, decide, with the class, on the outstanding topics that sum up the story of Jamestown. A table is then developed with these topics as headings

9 Chief Occupation	10 Religious Difficulties	11 Relation to Indians	12 When Did Colony Begin to Prosper	13 Its Most Important Persons	14 Events to be Remembered

for the vertical columns as shown at the top of pages 92 and 93:

When the study of a colony is completed, these tables are brought out and the most appropriate insertions for each column are discussed. As agreement on the wording is reached, each pupil makes the proper entries in the fourteen columns. There is thus evolved a summary of each colony and a comparative table of the settlement of the Thirteen Colonies. When the pupil is asked to contrast the forms of government, the various industries, or the reasons that impelled settlement of the various colonies, he looks down the proper column and talks from the tabular summary, coöperatively developed. Many short review lessons can thus be given. In addition, this device teaches the child a mode of organizing ideas.

Comparisons elicit interest and evoke thought. When questions of the usual type are asked, they are answered in a perfunctory spirit. But introduce a question that calls for comparison, and note the changed attitude, for every comparison question is a challenge. It is a problem.

2. Reviews through Correlation

As a teaching practice, correlation does not differ markedly from comparison. In correlation, kindred topics of

different subjects, say geography and history, are interrelated. In comparison, kindred topics of the same subject are intimately related. To explain a known historical event by geography, reviews both the history and the geography. To use the experiences of history in a composition lesson, correlates these two subjects and reviews the history. Ask a class to write two paragraphs, one setting forth the Indians' view of the purchase of Manhattan Island for a few trinkets and the second, the white man's account of his bargain. Here is an illustration of correlation that presents a *re-view,* a new view of old experience. The discussion of correlation in the chapter on the development of imagination gives many illustrations of correlation of history with music, literature, manual training, or elementary science.

3. Review through a New Sequence

An Inherent Weakness of the Topical Development.—In the topical treatment of history children often fail to perceive that events in the different topics studied are synchronous. Since the topics are studied successively, children come to regard the events as successive too. Thus, in teaching the Civil War by campaigns, pupils often develop the idea that no attempt was made to secure control of the Mississippi (the second campaign studied) until all the harbors of the South were successfully blockaded (the first campaign presented). So, too, in learning the period of 1815–1860 by topics, children get the idea that not until the whole question of slavery was settled did America turn her attention to tariff disputes or the menace of the doctrine of states' rights. True, in the study of slavery, the date 1820 is always mentioned with the Missouri Compromise and in the study of territorial acquisition, 1819 is literally attached to the purchase of Florida. Nevertheless, many in the class will not relate those two events in time.

Illustrations of New Sequence.—The remedy lies not in drills on dates but in recasting information through an entirely new organization. To recall 1815–1860, let us list the topics in successive vertical columns and prefix two columns giving the names of the presidents and the dates of the successive administrations, thus:

TABULAR PLAN FOR REVIEWING THROUGH NEW SEQUENCE

PRESIDENT	DATES	IMPORTANT EVENTS IN					
		Slavery	Territorial Expansion	Tariff Disputes	Industrial and Transportational Improvement	States' Rights Dispute	Foreign Affairs
MONROE "The Era of Good Feeling"	1816 1824	Miss. Comp. 1820	Florida purchased 1819	1816 and 1824	Erie Canal 1824	Monroe's tour to strengthen Republicanism in New England and New York	Monroe Doctrine
J. Q. ADAMS							

Little by little there grows up in the pupils' minds the conception of synchronous events, not because of repeated explanations but rather through the development of such tabular reorganization of known data. The pupils and not the teacher must carry the chief burden of filling out the items called for by the table. In this way they acquire the *re-view*.

4. Reviews through New Problems

Because of its intensely social content and its human background, history affords opportunity for introducing the same topic by more than one problem. If a lesson was not developed originally through a problem, surely a review can be given by presenting a problem to be solved by the application of historic information already learned. The suggestion of a few vital problems may be helpful.

SOME SUGGESTED PROBLEMS FOR REVIEW OF CERTAIN TOPICS

The Aim	*The Problem*
1. To review the Declaration of Independence.	1. The progress of the Revolutionary War shows a change from a struggle to preserve our rights as Englishmen to a struggle for our rights as men. What evidence of this change is seen in the Declaration of Independence?
2. To stress the fact that American tariff struggles have been contests between agricultural and industrial interests.	2. The tariff struggles used to be waged between the North and the South. Recently they were waged between the East and the West for the same reasons. Why is tariff supported or opposed by the sections of a country?
3. To review causes of early Spanish and English settlements in North America and to stress the fact that the Spaniards were gold seekers and colonizers.	3. By the middle of the sixteenth century not a single Spanish colony existed north of the Gulf of Mexico, yet Columbus sailed from Spain in 1492. What conditions account for this fact?

The Aim	*The Problem*
4. To review the character of the settlers of most of the English Colonies.	4. Governor Stoughton of Plymouth said: "God sifted a nation in order that He might send choice grain to this wilderness." What facts prove this statement?
5. To review English and French colonial policy.	5. England's self-governing colonies prospered but French colonies that were under complete control of France remained very small. What facts that you studied show that this difference of development was due to the treatment of the colonies by the mother country?
6. To review the significance of the Compromise of 1850 and Douglas Bill of 1854.	6. The compromise in which California was admitted repealed the Missouri Compromise. Discuss this statement.
7. To review the causes of our entrance into the World War.	7. "There is this about America, gentlemen—she asks nothing for herself." Summarize the facts of America's conduct after the World War that prove Wilson's statement.
8. To review the work of Clay in American history.	8. Why is Clay called the Great Compromiser of America?
9. To review the period of 1872–1899.	9. The period of 1872–1899 is called the era of business expansion. Why?
10. To review the political significance of the events of 1789–1815.	10. The greatest achievement in the first twenty-five years of the life of the United States was the development of a feeling of nationality. Do you think this is so? Tabulate the facts on which you base your answer.

Each of these problems calls, not for new facts, but for those that were taught and which are still at the command of the pupils. The aim clearly is to achieve not mere rote repetition of these data but a deeper insight into them and a more liberal interpretation of their social significance.

5. Reviews by a Study of Selected Biographies

In a previous discussion, the values of biographical studies were set forth fully. We must stop here to point out that a new view and a deeper interpretation of a period may be given by the study of selected biographies.

A class completed the period of 1789–1812 by a topical study. To review the events of these years, three biographies were selected. The first was that of Hamilton. The children learned the Federalist political philosophy and saw the insistence of the demand for a highly centralized government in our early life. The second biography was that of Jefferson. Now the class realized more clearly than before the underlying principles of early democracy, namely, its abhorrence of a powerful central government, its faith that the common man will soon learn the art of self-government. Here are two opposing views, both based on arguments that appeal strongly to human reason. Which school shall shape the early destinies of the new nation? The third biography, that of Washington, answered this vital question. In the development of the lesson the teacher stressed Washington's common sense and his excellent judgment. He knew himself to lack the scholarship of both Jefferson and Hamilton, but he recognized in each the proponent of what seemed, then, extreme theories. He decided therefore to steer a middle course and thus, while appropriating what was practical from each, he did not subject the new nation to a definite Hamiltonian or Jeffersonian policy. Students of political science doubt whether these newly united states would have

survived had they been subjected to either of these two theories undiluted. The events of 1789–1812, thus interpreted in terms of fundamental political theories, stood out all the clearer. They were reviewed.

6. Reviews by Evaluating the Contending Sides of a Dispute

In all serious historic contests, reviews can be affected by examining into the merits of both disputants. Let us assume that a sixth-year class studied the causes of the American Revolution in terms of taxation without representation. The American colonists are thus regarded as the victims of arbitrary tyrannical British power. Long did they suffer, but when patience ceased to be a virtue, they rebelled. Hate is sometimes unwittingly spread over the pages of history in these grades.

In reviewing the topic summarize the specific acts of provocation: Navigation Laws, Stamp Act, Boston Massacre, the Intolerable Acts, Prohibition of Manufacturing, etc. Then turn to England's side of the great controversy. How did England answer "Taxation without representation is tyranny"? To what sections of her own did she point to prove that home districts as populous as the colonies were without representation? Let the children understand that England believed that a person elected in one corner of the Empire represents the whole Empire, whereas America insisted on actual or geographical not virtual or general representation. To this day, many students of history, with no ax to grind, uphold the English system of virtual representation.

Pupils must be led to understand the English policy back of the Navigation Laws and the interference with colonial manufacturing. In 1763 England found herself mistress of the seas and with most extensive colonial possessions. She herself was small. It was obvious that she

could not become a food-producing country for lack of extensive home lands, nor could she become a producer of raw materials. To the English statesmen the most logical policy was to make the colonies the sources of food and raw material and the small mother country the transporter and manufacturer. In English bottoms, foods and raw materials would be imported. On the return trips, the boats would carry the manufactured articles to English colonial markets as well as to those of other nations. This industrial and commercial policy has the merit of logic, but it failed to recognize that a paper plan which does not count with existing conditions and local traditions is doomed to failure. Here was a policy designed to develop a powerful Empire, but the colonies objected to being sacrificed to British needs. They were not disposed to give up the industrial and commercial achievements of a century to further a British policy. Aside from these specific considerations, this policy, which was based on the mercantile theory, was bound to fail because of its fundamental economic weakness.

The causes of the Revolutionary War are thus reviewed by being interpreted from a new standpoint. The specific provocative acts now appear as measures born of stupidity rather than of viciousness and adhered to more in a spirit of obstinacy than of tyrannical suppression.

Other great disputes of history may be studied in the same way. Were those in high governmental positions who opposed Columbus the stupid untaught men that history so often paints them? What arguments did they advance? Did Columbus succeed in reaching the Orient by sailing West? Was Columbus the first man to conceive the world as round? What might have been said for a continuation of the all land route to India and Cathay?

Were the Puritans justified in insisting that all the inhabitants of Massachusetts Bay Colony subscribe to the

same religious principles? Why did they found their colony? Did not the newcomers know the devotion of the Puritans to their own religious code? Should the strangers with opposing views have settled in their midst? Had the Puritans no right to protect their children from a philosophy of life and religion which they deemed fundamentally wrong? Is this the first instance in history that shows the champion of freedom becoming the oppressor?

Were the French wrong in their claims to Canada? How much of the mainland did the Cabots explore? How much of that territory did the English colonize? How far did the French penetrate the wilderness?

What arguments were presented by the upholders of the right to secede from the Union? Were the states of the Confederation forced into the Union? If membership was voluntarily entered into, should not withdrawal from membership be just as voluntary? How did the Unionists answer this argument? Was the doctrine of secession purely a southern belief? Did a northern state ever assert its right to secede?

Are we justified in permitting workmen to retain the right to strike? Is the quarrel between workers and employers a private matter or is the public involved? What if the coal miners or the railroad workers took full advantage of their right to quit work and remain idle? On the other hand, what could happen to our guaranties of freedom if we forced people to work against their will? Why do people oppose compulsory arbitration?

Are we right in refusing to enter the League of Nations? Have we less to gain by joining than the other nations? Does the League really prevent war? Has it done anything since its inauguration to prove its power of peace?

It was evident at the time we took possession of the Philippine Islands that we were unwelcome. Should we have remained? Had we a right to force our occupancy

and exact loyalty from a people so recently under the sovereignty of another country? Should we have denied them the right of independence as long as we have? Have we treated Cuba the same way?

Have we the right to interfere when our neighbors, Mexico, Haiti, Venezuela are in difficulties? What if Mexico is in the hands of an unrecognized rebel? What if Americans lose their investments in Mexico? All business involves chance; did not these investors know that they were taking a chance? What if these countries cannot discharge their foreign debts and go from one revolution to another? Is it our concern? Why not let a European power settle with Santo Domingo and Haiti?

Here we have a few of the many illustrations that show how the fundamental issues of a great dispute are reviewed by a critical and impartial analysis of the contentions and by an honest search for truth. Every successful review makes for thoroughness of understanding, longer retention, and readier recall because of the rational rather than the rote repetitions.

Problems for Study and Discussion

1. List six problems taken from public life which challenge the mind of the intelligent citizen. What issues are involved? What factors must be considered? What new relationships or adjustments must be made? Select any of the problems of history here discussed and analyze in the manner just suggested. Are there any similiarities between the problems that confront the citizen and those presented by history? What conclusions may be justifiably drawn concerning the value of history for training in thinking?

2. (*a*) Examine the course of study in history prescribed for a local school system or for a state. Is the course chronological or topical or both? What data can you find to support your contention?

(*b*) Analyze the history textbook you know best. Does it de-

velop the subject chronologically or topically? Prove your answer by citing specific instances.

(*c*) Obtain a history textbook much used ten or twenty years ago. Compare it with a textbook extensively used to-day. Which is more topical in its development of the subject?

3. Organize topically all the data that should be taught children under fourteen in connection with the following topics: the Revolutionary War; 1873 to 1899; the first three administrations.

4. Plan suitable problems that may serve as effective modes of approach for the following topics: acquisition of the Philippine Islands and the beginning of imperialism; has the League of Nations prevented any wars?; the significance of the solid South in political elections; causes of the World War; disarmament conferences and the Pacific Compact; Spanish settlement in America; causes of colonization of America; the Boston Massacre; Franklin's service in the cause of independence; the Declaration of Independence; the Monroe Doctrine; freeing the slaves; Lincoln's conduct of the Civil War.

5. Suggest suitable projects for each class of projects discussed in the text. Analyze at least two of the projects into their component activities and indicate the extent of correlation that is achieved by each of them.

6. Suggest a project that is based on children's desire to collect. Show what history is thus learned and what other subjects are intimately related.

7. Which of the following projects are genuine and which spurious: to learn the names and dates of the important explorers; to ascertain whether the health of an age is a measure of its progress; to make the simple articles of furniture and costumes for a one-act historic play; to compare the progress in science and art during a war period with the progress achieved during the same number of years of peace.

8. What underlying tendencies should a teacher establish in teaching the following periods in American history: exploration and discovery; settlements by France, England, Holland, and Spain; 1865–1873; 1873–1899; 1899–1914?

9. Select six commonly recognized periods in world history. State the underlying tendency to be emphasized in each of these. Organize the facts about one of these periods in such a way that they contribute toward the development of its controlling tendency.

10. State the values of the teaching practice given in Chapter VII. Group these values under three heads: (*a*) psychological; (*b*) pedagogical; (*c*) historical.

11. Formulate a lesson designed to teach the plan, sponsored by Jefferson, of laying an embargo in the hope of bringing both France and England to terms. Follow the principle of causal expectation. Indicate two other topics in history that can be taught in this way.

12. Organize a lesson or a series of lessons suitable for junior high school pupils, on the significance of the Renaissance. Follow the principle of logical inferences or causal expectation as evolved in Chapter VIII.

13. What factors, other than physical forces, shape life and civilization?

14. Contrast review and drill with respect to the aims and the methods of each. Plan a drill lesson and then a review lesson on the topic, "Causes of Colonization of America."

15. Give at least one original illustration for each of the modes of review set forth on page 91. In each instance tell what is being reviewed and prove that old knowledge is really reviewed, not merely reiterated.

CHAPTER X

THE SPIRITUAL VALUES OF HISTORY

History and Moral Education

The discussion of the values of history has, thus far, concerned itself with things utilitarian and disciplinary. There is a spiritual significance of history that must not be overlooked. The basic function of education, we are told, is to change man from "his original to his ideal nature," in a word, to transform his conduct and shape his ideals. The very nature of the subject matter of history makes it a potent force for spiritual development. We must now seek the reasons that make history so effective an agent for moral growth.

History Is an Intensely Human Study

In history, as in literature, the pupil does not discuss virtues that are disembodied. No academic analysis is made of good and evil. Rather, he sees real conduct expressing itself in all the relationships that arise in actual life. The youth thus learns right from wrong not by definitions or rules but, under the teacher's guidance, by sympathetic and understanding observation of life itself.

Its richness in gripping personalities intensifies this human appeal of history. Children are naturally hero worshipers. With proper guidance they may select for their cherished historic characters those who are the very apotheosis of loyalty, high-mindedness, and self-sacrifice.

So, too, selfishness, lust, deceit, or treachery remain no mere abstractions. These stand out as abhorrent qualities embodied in the lives of those whom they persistently condemn in the course of their well planned study of history.

History Makes an Emotional Appeal

Argument may lead to conviction, but conviction may not lead to action. To know is not necessarily to do. History does more than teach the right. It grips emotionally and thus tends to set off the springs of conduct. The price of treachery is not set forth in cold print. The overwhelming tragedy portrayed in the death of Arnold makes an emotional appeal so intense that it repels the children from the act of a traitor. While that emotion is strong in their lives, they will probably be guilty of no act of treachery. Fortitude, heroism, and loyalty to principle, when taught through the stories of the Pilgrims, the death of Wolfe, Valley Forge, or the signing of the Declaration of Independence, are accompanied by emotions that prompt actions that are in keeping with these virtues. Our newer psychology teaches that though these specific facts be forgotten, the emotional reactions and the resultant attitudes which the pupils experience live on as unconscious but nevertheless controlling forces of their behavior.

Properly Taught, History Develops Moral Attitudes

History is the unbiased story of social evolution. It is a bitter foe of prejudice. It strives constantly to maintain an attitude of mind that is entirely honest, as ready to come to one conclusion as to another. It knows one criterion of judgment—demonstrable fact. We must therefore be as ready to condemn the intolerance of the Puritan as that of the Church of England. If we cannot sanction all of our demands after the Mexican War, we must be as impatient with our own excesses as we are with those

of others. Such an attitude of complete frankness serves to intensify the appreciation of the national idealism that has been so consistently maintained by the United States.

History Teaches Social Living

Throughout the study of history, the child is given an understanding of the processes of living together in a highly organized and developing community. In the last analysis, history is the story of how men learned to live together. The teacher of history should stress the maladjustments in early society and the quickened progress that resulted from coöperative enterprise and the growing regard for rights of others. In history, youth learns that society is a developing social organism bent on achieving a higher destiny. In learning how people have repressed personal impulses in the interests of harmonious social life, the child develops, in a measure, the power of social adjustment in the present.

The Development of Patriotism

Meaning of Patriotism

Patriotism, in its narrow sense, is a mean attitude. Those who so conceive it regard patriotism as a force that makes for national egotism, with an overbearing nationalism that gives birth to suspicion and hate of all that is foreign. Patriotism must never become chauvinism. The intense nationalism which put *Deutschland über Alles* was regarded as glorious patriotism in prewar Germany.

Patriotism must be regarded as a desire to perpetuate those principles of justice and humanity that control in the life of a nation. It must be an attitude of almost sacred regard for those who sacrifice themselves in the struggles for these principles that others may live happily under them. As such, patriotism develops rational humility

rather than overbearing audaciousness. In the genuine patriotism of Washington, Franklin, Jefferson, Lincoln, Robert E. Lee, Roosevelt, or Wilson, there is warmth and brotherliness. These patriots never sang the hymn of hate.

History a Means of Developing Patriotism

The very characteristics of history that make it an effective agent in character training give it power to instill broad and humane patriotism. The stories of courage and sacrifice are centered in situations so dramatic that they rouse the pupil's keenest admiration. Teachers must not fail to utilize the rich opportunities to develop patriotism that can be found in practically every history lesson.

Cautions in Patriotic Appeals in History

1. *Avoid Bigoted Patriotism.*—Loyalty is an admirable quality but, like all virtues, it has its human limits when applied to actual life. Carry loyalty beyond rational bounds and it develops a self-centered, narrow, bigoted individual who is intolerant of those not of his group. There is a point in denominational loyalty beyond which one becomes un-Christian. So, too, there is a measure of American loyalty beyond which one belies the fundamental guaranties of America. Shall we teach, "My country right or wrong?" If we do, then the pupil concludes my party right or wrong and my group right or wrong, conclusions alarmingly close to, mine, right or wrong. Is it not better to teach, "My country, right; I love and admire her for that is what I expect of her. My country, wrong! I am distressed for that is unworthy of her traditions and her achievements."

At all times we must guard against giving the pupil cause to feel that his country has a monopoly of courage and wisdom. It is well to remind children that while we had Washington, others had Cincinnatus; we had Nathan

Hale, others had Regulus; we had Webster, others had Demosthenes; we had Paul Jones, others had Lord Nelson; we had Lawrence, others had Leonidas. Unless this is done occasionally, our pupils may assume a "holier-than-thou" attitude which is both un-American and unpatriotic.

2. *History May Overemphasize the Martial Hero.*—In the study of the meaning of history we cautioned against an emphasis on war heroism to the exclusion of the heroism of peace. "History is apt to be unethical as well as ethical." Eliot warns. "When the teaching of American history is used merely to develop vainglory and pugnacity, the result is unethical. With that kind of teaching we are going downhill towards savagery instead of upward toward civilization."

Teach the heroism of the battlefield, but do not neglect the heroism displayed by the pioneer American aviators or by the research American physicians who inoculate themselves with deadly germs to test a theory that may eliminate disease. And there is the heroism of the home, of the shop, of the plowed field, and of the untilled prairies. Life is not all war. It is sometimes necessary to fight to live, but we must not live only to fight.

3. *Avoid Making History an Instrument for Propaganda.*—History as a school study has a dignity of its own which should not be dissipated in extravagant propaganda. The fundamental purpose of teaching history is to develop socially minded citizens capable of active participation in the highly socialized life of to-day. History must never be used to build up preconceived sanctions and condemnations. If historic research proves commonly taught facts inaccurate, they must be changed; if cherished statements have been found to be without foundation, then they must no longer hold a place in history. The argument that they have so long inspired American youth that we must not eliminate them does not meet the issue honestly. In his-

tory, as in all school activities, only the truth should be permitted to inspire.

It has been said by responsible school people that the textbook writer preparing a book for school use is not writing in the capacity of historian. His function is to furnish teachers the materials they need to carry out the expressed aims of the course of study. The duties involved in the teaching of history should be divided, we are told, between teacher and textbook maker, the former determining the material needed and the latter supplying it.

Surely this is a conception of history teaching that is not without grave danger. It is generally conceded that grade teachers are not historians. The textbook writer, we are told, must subordinate himself as a historian and merely supply the material required by non-historically trained teachers. Is the same standard to be set up for writers of texts in geography? Are traditional fallacies to be perpetuated because they are old and revered and truth shut out of our books because, forsooth, it is new?

Americanization through History

Meaning of "Americanize"

The hysteria that followed the World War has much to do with the many movements afoot to Americanize the foreigner. Much money from the public purse and more from private sources flow freely into agencies established avowedly for the production of social homogeneity. To some, Americanization is achieved by making all non-English-speaking foreigners learn our language. Others think a knowledge of American history will bring about the desired assimilation. Another group pins all faith in teaching civics and securing the participation of the foreigner in the celebration of historic events. Then there are those

who have another nostrum, organization into social unit groups.

These well intentioned citizens fail to set before themselves a well defined goal. Not until we have agreed on the fundamental characteristics of the state known as *Americanized* should we proceed with Americanizing efforts. Surely, to Americanize does not mean to cast all foreigners in the same mold, have them talk the same language, eat the same food, wear similar clothing, and use the same slogans. If it did, then the process of Americanizing would be similar to Anglicizing, Russianizing, or Germanizing.

To Americanize is to make an alien feel at home in America. It is the successful outcome of all the forces—educational, social, and economic—designed to lead a stranger to understand the best in American life and to appreciate it to a degree that makes him ready to assume the obligations incurred by active participation in our society. The foreigner who is Americanized does more than perceive clearly the significant advantages that he and his family will reap from membership in our democracy; he is ready to pay the full price for them by meeting the responsibilities of American citizenship.

History an Agent in Americanization

Civics and history, by their very content, play no small part in Americanizing the alien. These studies teach him the traditions of the nation; they tell him the story of the evolution of our liberties of speech, press, and conduct, both religious and political. They show him the price American leaders paid to insure him this emancipation. These two studies, history and civics, present the experiences that make him an integral part of America and that reproduce in his mind the mind of America. Those who teach history and functional civics become at once active

agents in the process of Americanization, of making aliens feel at home in a new land.

Limitations of History in Americanization

It is sheer folly to exaggerate the rôle that history plays in the process of Americanization. We must be mindful of its limitations:

1. More than knowledge is necessary to make the foreigner feel at home. Knowledge is a first step, a necessary step but not a final step, in the process of rational Americanization.

2. Without a knowledge of the common language real "at-homeness" in a strange country is hardly possible. However wise and sympathetic the foreign press may be, it is still inadequate as a unifying force. Most adult non-English-speaking aliens are too old to learn enough of English to use it as an effective medium of communication. History cannot overcome this handicap of language.

3. The attitude of the native born towards the foreigner must change, for Americanization is a mutual process. Unless the cordiality of the host is genuine, the guests cannot possibly feel at home. We must respect their traditions and ideals of life; we must remember that they come from lands that have just cause for pride in their achievements in music, art, literature, and science; we must grant that they bring something of the best of the Old World culture. And, above all, we must recognize that by their very coming, foreigners pay us a most gracious compliment because their sincere belief is that this is a better country than their homeland. No passing whim, but a deep-seated conviction leads people to uproot themselves and transplant their growing families.

4. The industrial and social life of the foreigner may do much to retard his Americanization. He is exploited in certain mining sections; he is too often poorly housed; his

children, in certain states, are given educational and recreational opportunities which are altogether inadequate. To urge that he comes from no better or even worse conditions is a fact, but it is no justification for subjecting him to such an environment. This is America. Her spirit revolts against any social and industrial exploitation. Keen discontent with the limitations of life in his old home brings the immigrant here. He is not content to subject his family to a continuation of privation.

Conclusions

To feel at home in a new country where all of life is new, one must undergo a complete spiritual readjustment. The study of the history of the new people will help. But much more is needed. A whole battery of forces must concentrate on the newcomer to make him an American in America. He must be received cordially. His culture and his extraction must be respected. He must be introduced into industry that is democratic. His family must be guaranteed educational opportunities and social conditions that give promise of a life of greater usefulness and happiness. The state, the school, the church, the theater, the newspaper, Boy Scouts, young men's and women's associations—these agencies, in a spirit of helpful coöperation must dedicate themselves to making the foreigner at home in America.

History and the Development of New Interests

Every serious interest that is acquired becomes a liberalizing force in the life of an individual. History, properly taught, tends to develop new interests. If the subject is thoroughly vitalized, children are impelled to further reading about historic events. They may find pleasure in reading general history of the type of Van Loon's *Story*

of Mankind or more specialized books like biography, historical fiction, or drama. If this interest is nurtured as the pupil matures, it can be directed to current events and simple treatments of social and economic problems. It is not unreasonable to hope that a serious magazine may be adopted for regular reading.

The adolescent who progresses through the senior high school receives continuous stimulation to keep alive a serious attitude towards life. Effective teaching of history should arouse in pupils, especially those whose formal education is being curtailed, an interest in such topics as political parties, immigration, tariff, agricultural conditions, religious toleration, international relations, European conditions that affect the United States, progress in transportation and communication, the progress of American education, labor conditions, public supervision of industry, the outstanding figures in public life, in a word, the problems that should frequently engage the minds of intelligent people. Through class debates, correlated reading, dramatizations, relating the past to the present, appealing to reason and presenting historic problems and projects, we may develop in reasonable measure an interest in life's problems. We must repeat our observation that every serious interest that is acquired becomes a liberalizing force in the life of the individual.

History and World Peace

If there is one hope that mankind possesses in common, it is the desire for permanent world peace. From all homes and in every language the same simple prayer is reverently addressed, "O Lord, never more." Even those who sing of the spiritual gains through war—courage, sacrifice, selflessness—are ready to grant that these virtues can be developed in a struggle to subdue completely nature's forces.

Consider the courage of those who explore polar regions or unscaled mountain tops, those who investigate flora and fauna in the hearts of African or Brazilian jungles, who study savage life, who experiment with X-rays in the search for cancer cures, or who treat those afflicted with highly contagious disease. These are the walks of peace; they are as heroic as the struggles of war.

What are the outstanding instruments thus far devised to answer humanity's prayer for the abolition of war? The first is an international treaty agreement to maintain peace; the second, reduction of armaments. But in the final analysis all treaties are scraps of paper unless the contracting peoples have been so educated that they never permit themselves to violate a national oath. The most ardent supporters of the League of Nations grant that this international association can postpone war but that it does not irrevocably abolish it.

Gradual reduction of armaments among the contracting nations is not a guaranty of permanent peace. It delays war. It is a mere expedient, designed in too many instances merely to give some nations time for financial recuperation in postwar years. Plows have always been beaten into swords more easily than swords into plows.

War will be outlawed only when people have been educated to a full realization of the infinite pathos of unnecessary destruction of human life. The Messiah of peace is education. Only through education can people be made internationally minded and taught that national differences must be settled upon the same principles and through the same machinery of justice as those that are invoked among individuals. Teachers of history and the social sciences must ever picture vividly the human cost of war, and that war persists only because some of the leading nations are not ready to maintain justice in international affairs on as high a plane as in individual matters. Eliminate bigoted

nationalism and martial propaganda from history, and it becomes a potent agent for international justice and world peace.

Problems for Study and Discussion

1. Those, who, like the Herbartians, conceive the primary function of education to be the development of character, usually accord to history and to the other social studies a controlling place in the curriculum. List the reasons which justify, to these educators, their emphasis on history. What is an effective grouping of these reasons? Which of these seem entirely valid to you? Why do you not accept the others at face value?

2. Four conditions are set forth in the text to explain why history is so significant a factor in moral education. Do these four conditions apply to literature as a school study? Compare the values of history and literature for moral education.

3. It has been asserted that history may teach wrong as well as right because immature pupils often regard successful deception as shrewdness and foresight.

Name at least six situations commonly taught in history in which the unguided child may overlook the real moral issue. How would you guard against this danger in each of these situations?

4. Explain the psychologoy of emotions referred to in the following citation from the text (page 106): "Our newer psychology teaches that . . . the emotional reactions and the resultant attitudes which the pupils experience, live on as unconscious but nevertheless controlling forces in their behavior."

5. What basis of fact, if any, may be presented to justify the following serious complaints made by earnest teachers of history:

(*a*) History is often made an instrument of propaganda.
(*b*) Some teachers and textbook writers so present a situation that its true implications are completely lost.
(*c*) History is often taught to arouse hate and stimulate impulses of pugnacity.
(*d*) In history the heroism of war is sometimes glorified to a degree that completely overshadows the sacrifices of peace.

6. Granting that the facts of history that we teach must be entirely true, would you teach the following: that Grant smoked excessively and was often charged with similar excesses in drink-

ing; that Hancock smuggled; that not all the colonials were in favor of the rebellion—at least one-third remained loyal to England; that Andrew Jackson was not an exemplar in matters of private conduct; that some of Andrew Jackson's acts as President of the United States merit severe condemnation?

On what principle would you justify the teaching of all or the omission of only some of these facts and issues?

7. What facts are often presented to cast doubt on the truth implied in the metaphor, "America, the melting pot"?

8. What aliens in your local community have become Americanized? What evidence in their mode of living and in their attitude toward life leads you to this conclusion concerning this immigrant group?

9. What aliens in your local community have remained aliens? On what evidence do you base your conclusions? What reasons can you present to explain their failure to become Americanized?

10. What local agencies are dedicated to promote peace? What privately supported agencies, of similar purpose, are national in their appeal? What international instrumentalities have been devised to insure world peace? Which of these have been officially accepted by the leading nations of the earth? Which of these internationally accepted plans can achieve their purpose independently of the attitude of the citizens of the principal contracting nations?

PART III

THE CONTENT OF HISTORY THROUGH THE NINTH YEAR

CHAPTER XI

THE ATTEMPTS TO STANDARDIZE HISTORY

History as a Distinct School Subject

Before the War of 1812 history was taught incidentally in reading lessons. Not until 1815 was it accorded a place of its own in school curricula. History was well established in the academies of New York and Massachusetts by 1835–1840. Johnson reports that as late as 1860 general history was more frequently listed in the State of New York than United States history.[1] By 1870 history was generally accepted as an elementary-school subject. In 1876, a committee of the National Education Association reported on the course in history of all grades of schools from the elementary school through the college. It recommended United States history for elementary schools and general history with a study of the Constitution of the United States for secondary schools. Despite the many subsequent studies that have been made on the pedagogical aspect of history, the observer of class work experiences a growing conviction that the improvement in methods of teaching history has not been so rapid nor so marked as in the other school subjects. Inability of teachers and supervisors to decide definitely what should be included in history is perhaps one of the causes of this lack of progress in methods of teaching history.

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[1] Henry Johnson, *The Teaching of History* (The Macmillan Co., 1915), pp. 129–135.

The Varying Content of American History

To-day we have no generally accepted body of historic data that constitutes the course of study of American history. The content ascribed to the school history of the United States varies according to prevailing public opinion, sectional prejudices, and the predilections of school authorities. Increasing scholarship in history carried on with the scientific precision characteristic of the work of Osgood, Schlesinger, J. T. Adams, F. J. Turner, Beard, Beer, and others has added new and vital content and changed many traditional beliefs. The history text that meets with favor in New England is apt to be rejected by southern school officials. Textbooks in American history are often written for special sections. Communities in the West often have declared that what is usually taught as American history is not the history of America, but rather the history of the Atlantic seaboard. Hispanic America is so much reduced that the pupil never thinks of Spanish explorations and the colonization of all of America. Compare the content of two accredited histories of America and note how significantly they differ in content.

School texts in American history often cater to the prevailing prejudice of the day. Before the World War, England of 1775 was painted a shade or two darker than during the days when the two English-speaking nations were allies in a common cause. This change in attitude was at once assailed as British propaganda by certain school officials. History has been journalistically defined as "the lie agreed upon." It would seem as if even that agreement were no longer possible.

History Must Be Formulated by an Objective Standard

We have come to an impasse in formulating courses of study in history. No progress is possible unless we set

aside personal opinion and develop the content of the course by an objective standard formulated in terms of social need. History, we agreed, must explain the present to the maturing pupil; it must instill a social attitude and give a mind set that quickens the understanding of social relations and social institutions. Only that must be taught in school history which contributes directly to this social-mindedness. Aside from its social significance a fact of history has no value.

The Attempts to Formulate a Course of Study in Terms of an Objective Standard

1. Through Composite Professional Judgment

The composite judgment of properly qualified and carefully selected teachers is, generally speaking, a safer guide than personal opinion. In order to obtain a composite professional judgment of what to teach in history, a questionnaire was addressed to 150 recognized historians and teachers of history. To these scholars definite problems were addressed, to wit:

(*a*) Arrange twenty dates in their order of importance.
(*b*) Should the list of presidents of the United States be memorized in chronological order?
(*c*) What parts of American history should be memorized?

Of those addressed, eighty-six replied. The answers were not very helpful, and it really was not possible to obtain a composite judgment. Forty-nine out of seventy voted "yes" on question (*b*) above; thirty-nine favored memorizing such material as the Preamble to the Constitution. The list of dates submitted by some of the most noteworthy historians corresponded to the final list which expresses the composite judgment. The dates arranged in order of importance are as follows:

PROFESSIONAL JUDGMENT ON ORDER OF IMPORTANCE OF DATES IN AMERICAN HISTORY

Order of Importance	*The Dates*	*Order of Importance*	*The Dates*
1st (most important) ..	1776	11th	1812
2nd	1492	12th	1765
3rd	1607	13th	1783
4th	1789	14th ..... Apr. 14,	1865
5th	1620	15th	1850
6th	1803	16th	1854
7th	1861	17th	1775
8th	1787	18th	1781
9th ..... Jan. 1,	1863	19th	1823
10th	1820	20th	1846

The investigation did not yield an objective standard that would determine the content of American history.[2]

2. Through Newspapers and Magazines

A group of investigators proceeded on the assumption that the history required to understand newspaper and magazine references to the past is the history that is really necessary. According to this standard the rest of history to which little or no reference is made in the editorials and articles of newspapers and magazines, is, therefore, of little significance. Historic references in newspapers and magazines were therefore charted and classified. The frequency of reference was adopted as the measure of the importance of an event.

The results of this inquiry are interesting even though they do not give us the promised objective standard. The

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[2] J. E. Wooters, *School and Home Education*, December, 1914. Also *Fourteenth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education.

historic references in newspapers and periodicals indicated the following:[3]

First, the present-day content of history is not radically inconsistent with the needs of history information revealed by a study of current publications.

Second, more frequent reference is made to the Presidents than to any other group of people.

Third, most frequent reference is made to Lincoln. Other historic characters arranged in order of frequency of reference are: Washington, Jefferson, Jackson, Grant and Clay, Cleveland and McKinley.

Fourth, reference to wars is more frequent than reference to any other kind of historic event. This is true for the years preceding the World War.

Fifth, the Federal Government, the Constitution, the Constitutional Amendments, and the Constitutional Convention are referred to very frequently. It would seem, therefore, that the recent emphasis on the study of the Constitution is wise for it prepares pupils to understand commonly discussed problems of governmental functions.

Sixth, the facts of civics referred to most frequently are: powers of Congress, functions of the Senate, and the administration of governmental departments. The departments most frequently spoken of are, in order of the number of references: State Department, Department of the Interior, the Office of the Attorney General, the Treasury Department, the Department of War, the Post Office, the Department of Commerce.

Seventh, foreign persons and events are frequently discussed in newspaper and magazine reading. Caesar is more frequently referred to than any American except Lincoln, Washington and Roosevelt (in 1913). Napoleon, Louis XIV, Jeanne d'Arc and Luther are mentioned very frequently. The events of foreign history to which most frequent reference is made are: The Renaissance, French Revolution, the Middle Ages, and the Elizabethan Period.

Evaluation of This Standard.—A critical evaluation of this mode of evolving a standard for determining the con-

[3] W. C. Bagley, "Determination of Minimum Essentials in Elementary Geography and History," *Fourteenth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education.

tent of the course in history reveals a significant weakness. Writers of newspaper and magazine articles talk in terms of the experiences of their readers. They cannot free themselves from the kind of history that was taught to them. Writer and reader know chronological history that associates events with the administration in which they happened to occur. It is evident that the Presidents of the United States will therefore become a frequently referred to group. The procedure is therefore not unlike the logical fallacy of "arguing in a circle." But the standard does have value for we must not assume that the historical background of writers of periodical literature has not been enriched since school days. The inquiry does answer the initial question, "To what extent does the history taught in American schools contribute towards an understanding of the historic references in current newspaper writing?" The results confirm old convictions and point clearly to the need of liberalizing history by the inclusion of a rapid survey of world history.

3. Through a Comparative Study of Textbooks

A third plan to formulate an objective standard that may determine the content of history led to the analysis of existing textbooks in this subject. Throughout this study the importance of an event is judged by the space allotted to it and the number of references made to it. The texts were divided into four groups, (1) those published from 1860 to 1874, (2) from 1881 to 1888, (3) from 1890 to 1904, and (4) from 1906 to 1912.[4] To the work of Bagley and Rugg the author has added an analysis of six commonly used textbooks in the school grades V–XII.

[4] Figures for the first four groups are based on tabulations made by Bagley and Rugg, in "The Content of American History as Taught in Seventh and Eighth Grades," p. 22, University of Illinois, School of Education Bulletin No. 16, August, 1916.

The results of this study are set forth in column headed Group, 5, 1910–1925, in the accompanying table.[5]

Conclusion of Analysis of Textbooks.—This inquiry reveals a series of interesting observations on the content of several American history textbooks:

First, the percentage of space given to each of the important periods in American history is set forth in the

PERCENTAGE OF SPACE GIVEN TO VARIOUS TOPICS BY TEXTBOOKS PUBLISHED IN DIFFERENT PERIODS

[PERIOD OR TOPIC	PERCENTAGE OF SPACE GIVEN TO EACH BY THE BOOKS IN					Average Percentage of Space, All Five Groups of Books	Variation from Lowest to Highest Allotment of Space, Per Cent
	Group 1 1860–1874	Group 2 1881–1888	Group 3 1890–1904	Group 4 1906–1912	Group 5 1919–1925		
Discovery and Exploration	5.7	7.93	11.15	8.27	6.51	7.91	5.45
Colonial Development	21.3	20	17.46	15.95	11.84	15.31	13.84
Colonial Wars	5.6	4.83	3.42	3.67	2.70	4.04	2.90
Pre-Revolutionary Period	3.1	1.86	3.35	4.11	3.39	3.16	2.25
Revolutionary Period	17.6	17.3	11.87	9.58	6.46	12.56	11.14
1783–1812	6.4	8.2	6.78	14.17	10.04	9.89	7.80
1812–1861	16.9	15.6	19.12	21.01	20.92	18.71	5.41
Civil War	11.8	14.2	11.88	10.22	10.06	11.63	4.14
1865 to date of Publication of the Books	8.95	11.3	14.87	14.45	28.35	15.58	19.40

[5] The books subjected to analysis were: H. W. Elson, *History of the United States of America* (Macmillan Co., 1923); W. F. Gordy, *History of the United States* (Chas. Scribner's Sons, 1922); D. S. Muzzey, *The United States of America*, 2 vols. (Ginn & Co., 1922–24); C. L. Robbins, *School History of the American People* (World Book Co., 1925); Thwaits and Kendall, *A History of the United States for Grammar Grades* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924); Woodburn and Moran, *Elementary American History and Government* (Longmans, Green & Co., 1920).

following table. The first group of books gave 5.7 per cent of their total space to the Period of Discovery and Exploration; the second, 7.93 per cent; the third, 11.15 per cent; the fourth, 8.27 per cent; the fifth, 6.51 per cent. The average of the five groups is 7.91 per cent. The last column shows the range from the lowest to the highest allotments of space. Books in Group 1 gave 5.7 per cent of their space to the Period of Discovery and Exploration; those in Group 3, 11.15 per cent. The difference, 5.45 per cent, is small because there is substantial agreement on the space allotment to the Period of Discovery and Exploration among these books. The larger the variation, the greater is the difference in the space allotted to a topic by these groups of books. An analysis of the space allotment in the books of Group 5 is especially interesting.

Second, the space devoted to wars has generally declined in recent years whereas space given to the Periods of Discovery and Exploration, the pre-Revolutionary Period and the Period of 1783–1812—the non-military periods—has either generally increased or remained almost the same in the last twenty years.

Third, the variation in names mentioned is striking. All books have only five names in common in the Period of Discovery and Exploration, Columbus, John and Sebastian Cabot, Balboa, Sir Walter Raleigh. Three-fourths of the books all add ten other names, Vespucci, Drake, Ponce de Leon, Gilbert, Magellan, Cortez, De Soto, Cartier, White, and Verrazano. In the pre-Revolutionary Period, 118 different names are listed in these books but only one, Patrick Henry, is common to all.

Fourth, the proportion of space given to the Revolutionary War has declined steadily from 17.6 per cent to 6.46 per cent. Although 301 different names are found in twenty-two different books, only eleven of these are com-

mon to all the books. The agreement among these books is set forth in tabular form.

TOPICS AND NAMES IN REVOLUTIONARY PERIOD COMMON TO ALL TEXTBOOKS EXAMINED

TOPICS TREATED BY ALL TEXTS	NAMES MENTIONED BY ALL TEXTS	
	In Civil Life	In Military Affairs
Lexington and Concord	Franklin	Washington
Bunker Hill	Patrick Henry	Cornwallis
Siege of Boston	Washington	Howe
Washington, Commander-in-Chief	Clinton	Burgoyne
Declaration of Independence		Green
Ticonderoga		Lafayette
Long Island		Gage
Retreat through New Jersey		
Battle of Trenton		
Battle of Princeton		
Valley Forge		
Burgoyne's Campaign		
Monmouth		
Arnold's Treason		
Camden		
Cowpens		
Guilford Court House		
Yorktown		
Treaty of Paris		

Fifth, there is a marked increase in the space given to the period of 1783–1812. Social and political conditions during these years, the Articles of Confederation, the Constitution, the Embargo, the Ordinance of 1787, Lewis and Clark's Expedition, currency problems, foreign relations, and the introduction of steam navigation are stressed by almost all the books. The most frequently mentioned names in three-fourths of these books are: Washington, Jefferson, Hamilton, John Adams, Madison, Burr, Jay, Napoleon I, Charles C. Pinckney, Franklin, "Citizen" Genet, William Clark, John Marshall, Meriwether Lewis, Robert Fulton.

Sixth, in the period of 1812–1861 we find marked changes which are summed up in the following table.

Topics in American History in the Period of 1812–1861	*Changes in Space Allotted to It in the New Books*
War of 1812 and Mexican War	Decrease of one half
Political Question and Slavery Struggle	Increase of 66⅔ per cent
Industry, Inventions, Commerce	Increase of 800 per cent
Foreign Affairs	Increase of 900 per cent
Finances	Increase of 66⅔ per cent
Territorial Growth	Increase of 125 per cent

The reduction of material on military history and the increasing emphasis on economic and social life are clearly seen.

Of the 491 names mentioned in the books, only fifteen are common to all. Of these fifteen names, nine are names of presidents.

Seventh, space devoted to the Civil War shows a decided decrease in later publications. The period from 1865 to 1912 presents unusual difficulties to the student who endeavors to sum it up. The books give 182 different names but only one, President Johnson, is common to all.

General Conclusion.—Although space devoted to an event does not denote its significance, it is evident that the frequency with which it is treated will impress the mind and build up an idea of importance. Certain names and events, because of their character, do not recur. But they may nevertheless be associated with consequences of transcending importance. The names of Fulton, Morse, Longfellow, Whitney, Poe, and McCormick may not recur in a history text after they are treated; but it is clearly absurd to classify them as of minor importance for that reason. The marked variations in content and in space allotment give

further evidence of the need of an objective standard by which to determine the data that constitute school history.

4. Through a Study of Social-Science Texts[6]

Since a fundamental purpose governing the teaching of history in the schools is to enable maturing youth to understand the social problems of its day, an analysis of the outstanding texts on social, economic, and political questions should reveal, by their references to the past, the content of American school history. Authorities in political science, sociology, and economics were asked to list "problems of undoubted crucial nature in present-day life and to list under each the books which gave the most intelligent treatment." One book was chosen from each list for analysis. Texts that were clearly historical were not included in the final selection.

An analysis of each book was made to obtain data that would lead to answers to such queries as:

1. What percentage of the entire book deals with historic information?
2. What specific and what approximate dates are referred to in each book?
3. What historical characters are referred to in each book?
4. In each book what is the frequency of reference to each historic period?
5. In each book, what is the frequency of reference to each of the more important phases of history—economic, political, social, military, cultural?

To supplement the material thus analyzed, 142 articles covering thirty-eight different subjects in the *International Encyclopedia* were checked.

Results of Analysis of Texts on Social Problems.—The data obtained lead to the conclusion that American history,

[6] Ernest Horn, "Possible Defects in the Present Content of American History," *Sixteenth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education.

as now taught, does not give the information nor the mental attitude necessary for an intelligent understanding of the outstanding social questions of the day. No final conclusion concerning the content of the courses of study can be drawn with any degree of safety.

Dates. One hundred ninety-four different dates were found in the books examined and 199 in the encyclopedia articles. Most of the dates were mentioned only once. The average frequency of the census dates (1890, 1900, etc.) is three times that of non-census dates. This is to be expected because writers on social and economic problems fall back on census data and mention the date of the census figures. It is significant that 1492, 1607, 1619, 1621, 1765, 1783, 1814, 1861, dates emphasized in school and generally recommended by professional historians, occurred rarely.

Reference to Phases and Periods of History.—The references which these books make to the various periods of American history hold many surprises in store for the teacher familiar with the topics usually regarded as important in school texts. The frequency of reference is given in the following table:

FREQUENCY OF REFERENCE OF VARIOUS PERIODS

Period	Frequency of Reference, per cent
Discovery and Exploration	0.1
Colonial	2.5
1764–1812	5.6
1812–1861	4.7
1861–1916	85.0

The references in these books to the various phases of American history are in keeping with the values expressed in the table above. In the tabular arrangement below are summed up (1) the frequency of reference to political, social, and military history; (2) the relative importance of

these three phases of history as set by the Committee of Eight, by modern textbooks on the history of the United States, and by books on present-day social problems.

FREQUENCY OF REFERENCE TO POLITICAL, MILITARY, AND SOCIAL-ECONOMIC HISTORY

JUDGMENT EXPRESSED BY	FREQUENCY OF REFERENCE TO THE PHASES OF HISTORY, PER CENT		
	Political	Military	Social-Economic
Committee of Eight	33	30	37
Modern Textbooks in History	42	40	18
Books on Present Social Problems	18	4½	78

The discrepancies of judgment are almost startling. Will our young people become citizens capable of active and intelligent participation in the great problems of life in modern society if they derive their inspiration and knowledge from books that devote only 18 per cent of their space to social-economic problems and 40 per cent to the military achievements of the past? This ratio of space allotment is true of accredited textbooks in American history.

Reference to People.—Most of the names that recur in the pages of modern textbooks in history are not found in the books that treat the outstanding social and political problems of our day. The latter group of books makes only slight reference to military characters but refers frequently to writers, scientists, philosophers, economists, and sociologists. But it must be remembered that writers on social-economic questions mention workers in their own field merely in the course of reference to former publications. Such reference to a name is not an indication of the importance of the person. It may be nothing more than a passing allusion.

Conclusions for Teaching.—History as taught to-day does not appear to prepare the pupils for an understanding of contemporary social problems as they are presented in approved texts. There is urgent need for a shift of emphasis from mere chronology and military and political history to sociological and economic aspects of the development of civilization. There are few teachers of history and civics who would not express a cordial agreement with the spirit of this conclusion.

But the only history that can be taught to-day to most of those who will become citizens of the next decade is chronological history and biographical stories because almost half of the present school population of the United States is eliminated by the end of the sixth school year. The child who remains through the junior high school can be taught the type of history which explains our institutional life and which socializes conduct. The failure to prepare for intelligent participation in our social life must be ascribed to the inability of the school to keep its children through the ninth year as well as to the limitations of the course of study and of current methods of teaching history and the social sciences.

Problems for Study and Discussion

The reader is referred to the end of Chapter XIII, page 185, for a list of problems.

CHAPTER XII

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE COURSE OF STUDY

Our last chapter studied the attempts to evolve an objective standard which would definitely determine the content of the school course in history. Without such an impersonal instrument, history cannot be freed from the arbitrary sway of individual opinion which is too often born of prepossessions or mere caprice. Serious study has not yet yielded a method of determining the socially necessary content of history.

We must now look at the course of study in history from a different angle. Assuming that the content must remain for the present as fixed by the most commonly used textbooks, how shall the subject matter of history be developed? Shall we follow a mere chronological narrative in which dates determine the sequence of racial or national incidents? Shall we present a brief course, a bird's-eye view, and then follow this with an intensive study of each epoch? Shall we select a number of topics or problems, regardless of chronological sequence, and teach these in the order of importance? Shall we begin with the simplest social stage and progress according to the steps in social evolution? Shall the same topic be taught in two or more grades in the first nine years of the school course? These questions are typical of the many that confront teachers and supervisors charged with the duty of formulating a course of study in history.

The Culture-Epoch Theory and the Development of the Course in History

What Is the Culture-Epoch Theory?—Some of the early enthusiasts of evolution are responsible for extravagant applications of it to social science. The culture-epoch theory holds that each individual, in the course of his own development, passes through a series of stages that are identical with those through which the race passed in its social evolution. Thus the individual repeats the history of the race. In his early years he knows only the present. His improvidence fails utterly to reckon with the future. He is self-centered and attains happiness when his physical wants are satisfied. His impulses prompt play and fight. The adherents of the culture-epoch theory argue that these are the attitudes and actions characteristic of savage life, the first stage in social development.

The succeeding years, we are told, find the child freed from his narrow environment. His ultra-active imagination takes him to distant places. He enjoys the changing scenes of his daydreams. Again and again he pictures himself a leader of a band bent on adventure. His imagination often creates situations that fill him with terror. Dragons that seem real and ogres apparently corporeal are now produced by his untrained imagination. These fill him with dread and persist especially in the helplessness induced by darkness. Again, we are assured, the child is only reliving the highly imaginative and superstition-ridden nomadic existence of his pastoral ancestors who belong to the second stage of social evolution.

The analogy is continued. The succeeding stages in social evolution, we are told, are, successively, simple agriculture, handicraft stage, age of machinery and mechanical power. The succeeding stages in the life of the individual show instincts that prompt a repetition of the character-

istic conduct of these social stages. The race thus relives its life in each individual. Each of us, in his development, is like a revolving mirror which reflects in successive pictures the stages through which mankind passed in its struggle towards emancipation and self-realization.

Application of the Culture-Epoch Theory to History Teaching.—To develop a natural course of study in history which will actually socialize the pupil, it is argued, we must reconstruct life on the following successive levels: savage, hunting and fishing; pastoral or herding; simple agriculture; simple handicraft; modern industrial and commercial life. Hence there must be a detailed study of the tribal life of the savages—their customs, beliefs, religion, ceremonials, modes of defense and offense, their daily life, attitude towards life and death; and, in an elementary way, their art and music. The pupil should read about the Indians, should construct on a small scale their tents, should make tomahawks and bows and arrows, should weave Indian mats and mold Indian vessels and pots, should dramatize appropriate bits of savage life, should be thrilled by their adventure and horrified by their brutality, should sing Indian songs and copy Indian designs. By every device known to the art of teaching, the child should trace the details of savage life.

Pastoral life is next studied in the same intimate way. Through reading books, stories told by teachers, pictures, manual activities, games, songs, graphic representation, every phase of the life of the romantic herders is reproduced. The child studying American history would be made familiar with the geographic forces that favored the early development of the cattle industry; with the growth of herding in colonial and post-Revolutionary decades; with our extensive frontier; with the life of the American cowboy; with the history of the great cattle sections; with the changes in the methods of cattle raising and dairying activi-

ties. Here is a vital phase of American history that is taught early in the child's life but at a time, it is asserted, when the pupils' native interests are focused on this very stage of social life.

The history of agricultural America would then be taken up from its crudest forms practiced by the Indian through the improvements introduced by the earliest settlers to the present stage of development of soil culture. Here, again, we trace a significant force in the life of our country. But agriculture is taken up, it is again asserted, when the child, in his recapitulation of racial development, is ready to invest his interests in activities that are characteristic of agricultural life. The stages, reputed to be the successive steps by which mankind has attained its present status are made the successive centers around which historic data are organized.

Values Ascribed to a Culture-Epoch Curriculum.—It is urged that a course of study in history that is modeled on the culture epochs of the race satisfies the natural cravings of youth in its development and parallels the successive stages in the unfoldment of the pupil's mind. The child thus enjoys an intimate view of the evolution of the race.

The successive culture epochs afford interesting centers of organization and correlation. The facts of history and many phases of the life of the past as well as the present are unified by these stages of social development. Then, too, such a course is graded naturally and hence effectively. And, finally, culture epochs stress social and economic rather than military events and thus deepen in the minds of young pupils the constructive and progressive forces in the evolution of modern society.

Limitations of a Culture-Epoch Curriculum.—The culture-epoch theory is based on an analogy more verbal than actual. It is comparatively simple to point out certain similar attitudes in the life of the child of six and in the

life of the savage. The improvidence exhibited by the savage and by the young child both reveal an inability to project oneself into the future. But the improvidence of the two is not similar. So, too, one may insist that the savage and the child of eight are both highly imaginative and nomadic in their cravings. But here again the analogy is not genuine.

The theory of culture epochs lacks verification. One may believe that the race reached its present stages by evolving through a fixed succession of preliminary states, but there is little supporting evidence that is thoroughly authenticated. It does seem reasonable to urge that the hunting and fishing stage is simpler than the pastoral life and that the pastoral stage, is, in its turn, simpler than agricultural life. We are ready to grant that the handicraft stage, with its division of labor according to ability, is of a higher order than the simple agricultural stage. But it does not follow from this arrangement of various stages of life in an increasing order of complexity, that man in the handicraft stage necessarily attained that level by graduating from all the simpler stages first. What appears a logical sequence is not necessarily an historical sequence. Historical sequence may not be logical; there may be a sequence that is not an evolution. "Every sequence is not a consequence." A human inference, however logical, is not, of necessity, a fact.

It is a fallacy to assume that the steps in the social evolution of all peoples are uniform. Thus, some people, living a purely pastoral life may achieve a higher art level or loftier ethical ideals than others whose industrial and commercial enterprises show complex organization. Not a few students would insist that the brute Spartan had evolved a higher idealism in his conception of woman than the æsthetic Athenian. And yet, none will deny the higher intellectual and artistic development of the latter.

It is equally fallacious to insist that a later stage is necessarily a more complex stage. Later stages are sometimes regressive rather than progressive. The religious explanations of our age are simpler than the mysticisms of the past. So, too, our languages are, on the whole, less complex than the tongues of the ancients. Spencer's dictum that evolution is a transition from simple homogeneity to complex heterogeneity may hold in biology, but it is not the unvarying law of social growth.

And, finally, a culture-epoch curriculum in history will have marked difficulty in introducing political and military history, both powerful forces in the evolution of the race. It is for these reasons that the culture-epoch theory has made so little headway as a working principle of curriculum development. The theory has been a favorite theme in educational philosophy, but it has never stepped into the arena of educational practice.

The Psychological Development of the Course in History

The Stages of Mental Development.—A second plan for developing a course in history strives to present that subject matter which satisfies the characteristic cravings of the successive stages in the mental life of the child. In the earliest years the child is utterly dependent upon concrete experiences. Nothing has meaning that is not first in the senses. This is the presentative stage when sense perceptions of every type are warmly welcomed.

The second recognized phase in the mental growth of the child shows active imagination and reliable memory. Experiences of the past are easily retained and readily recalled. New situations can be imaged in terms of old sense impressions. This clearly is the representative period when old presentations are re-presented without objective aid.

It must not be assumed that either imagination or mem-

ory are absent in the first period, the presentative period. That is far from the truth. Memory and imagination, although active in the first stage, are not sustained long enough by the child to be of material aid in formal learning.

The third stage shows an attitude of inquiry. The mind now seeks new relationships in old experience. It wants to know not only *what* and *how,* but *why.* Clearly this is the stage of simple reasoning. But, again, it must be observed that reason is manifest in both earlier stages. The child in the presentative and in the representative stage thinks. He often asks questions that show penetration and grasp of fundamental relations among his experiences. But here, too, the thinking process is not sustained long enough to quicken the learning of formal subject matter of the more difficult type.

In learning a new subject, the mind shows clearly its preference for real contact with the new situations. These real experiences enrich the mind with perceptual facts and quicken imagination. As acquaintance with the new subject ripens into familiarity, the mind grows critical, seeks explanations of consequences and perceives results from certain causes. In teaching science to a pupil who has never been taught scientific experiences before, we begin naturally with his toys and the common applications of the simple laws of physics and chemistry. The child takes the ordinary electric bell apart and assembles its parts. He then attaches the battery to the wires and produces the ringing as the circuit is completed. Similar contact with the buzzer and the telegraph ticker gives the child a rich body of facts concerning magnetism and electricity. The child is ready to learn how a current aids in producing a magnet, how bodies become electrified by induction, and how constant is the attraction that plus has for minus in electricity. The imagination "sees" circuits and new combinations of the simple parts of the bell and the ticker.

Now the mind is ready to attack new problems and seek causes that explain difficulties that arise in similar simple scientific undertakings. But how different would the child's attitude be were we to start with definitions of an electric magnet, induction, and circuit and then give explanations of the effect of a current on a coil in preparation for a study of a simple house electric bell. This second procedure is perhaps more logical but surely less psychological because it does not begin with concrete experiences and real contact with life.

History may be taught from these three attitudes, presentative, representative, and thought. In the first cycle, say, up to the fifth year, history is made as concrete as possible. Local history is introduced in correlation with local geography. Historic buildings, statues, materials in the local historic museum—all these serve as occasions for telling stories of the past. Each holiday offers fitting setting for a study of a dramatic incident in the life of a people.

This introductory cycle is further enriched by a liberal study of historic biographies. It is argued that the life of a person is always concrete and therefore simple to a child. Events are shreds of the past, torn out of their natural weave—they are little more than abstractions. Embody the events of the past in the biographies of well chosen characters, and they take on real life. Therefore in this period a systematic study is made of the outstanding biographies, and a bird's-eye view of the whole of history is thus given. This procedure was explained in greater detail in the analysis of the biographical conception of history. Gradually and informally the children gather in these early school years no small stock of historic facts. Here, then, is presentative history, history that is concrete, that begins at the point of contact.

Representative history may be taught in the fifth and

sixth years. A systematic study of the most important facts and of the most dramatic pictures of history is now required. The aim throughout is to appeal to memory, to secure the retention and ready recall of the minimum essentials of history and to stir the imagination of pupils so that the past lives again. This clearly is representative history.

In the third cycle, thought history may be taught. This is the work of the junior high school history. No considerable body of new facts, names, dates, places, or people is introduced. The aims are rather to give a deeper understanding of those movements that were taught in the earlier cycles; to trace cause and effect; to organize data on the most rational basis; to teach pupils how to draw inferences and verify conclusions.

This method of developing the course in history may be called *the spiral plan.* Each succeeding cycle or group of grades repeats the content of history in ever widening circles; the aim of each repetition is more liberal and the content more rational. The course of study in history taught in the public schools of New York City, is typical of those that follow the spiral unfoldment.

Advantages Claimed for Spiral Course.—There are desirable points of pedagogic strength in a spiral course. First, the teacher has a definite standard in terms of which to plan the content of history in the different grades. She knows what to stress, what to include, and how to judge the effectiveness of her labors. If she is teaching a military campaign to children in the representative stage, she naturally focalizes attention on the dramatic aspects of the events. If the pupils know the aim of the campaign, the important battles and the outcome of each, the necessary dates and the important results of the military enterprise, she is partly satisfied. If, in addition to the knowledge of these facts, the children have had, in reasonable measure,

the emotional experiences appropriate to such a topic and their minds have pictured vividly the most important engagements, she is wholly satisfied for she has made a thorough appeal to retentive power and imagination.

The teacher of pupils in the thought cycle would hardly judge such teaching successful. Her pupils must understand the forces that lead to the campaign, the factors that determined the progress of events and the reasons that make these military engagements decisive. Not the specific battles, but the underlying and the permanent significance of the campaign as a whole, must be understood. Not until this aim is attained has the teacher succeeded in her task.

Secondly, the spiral course insures gradation that is natural and follows, genetically, the changing viewpoints and increasing power of the pupils. The history of each succeeding cycle gradually increases in difficulty, but the developing pupil seems to be ready for each new aspect.

Thirdly, ample repetitions are provided for the course in history without dulling the subject. The changing point of view and the changing appeal of a succeeding cycle produce history that is different from the history taught in a previous stage. The repetition is different enough to hold attention and gratify the outstanding interests of the pupils.

Limitations in the Spiral Course.—On the other hand, it may be argued that the repetitions come in cycles too far apart really to deepen the impressions. To teach the Period of Discovery from the representative point of view in the fifth year and again from the thought aspect in the seventh year produces a gap of two years, a stretch of time too long to give repetitions either drill or review value. Children forget facts taught in fifth-year history, and their teachers in the seventh year once more spend time and energy on the cold facts of history rather than on thought interpretations. The justification which teachers give for

this emphasis on fact history in the thought stage is not unexpected: "The children do not remember the facts which are to be interpreted. Obviously, there is nothing left us but to teach the facts. This permits almost no time for an evaluation of them." It would seem, therefore, that the plan sometimes falls of its own weight. But we shall show in the analysis of gradation that even though the facts must be retaught, they can be presented by methods that make history a thought subject rather than a mere organization of facts.

It must also be observed that the use of biographies will not always solve the problem of making history concrete. Some lives like those of Clay or Adams are difficult because their outstanding achievements are in statecraft rather than in military enterprises.

The Development of the Course in History by Beginning with the Present

Since the ultimate aim in the teaching of history is to explain the present, the popular argument runs, why not begin with the present? Rather than relate the past to the present, why not make the study of the past an outgrowth of the study of the present? This demand is not without full justification. There is more than mere logic in this position. The plan to teach the past by beginning with the present has intrigued many, but few have carried it out with any degree of completeness.

To develop a course of study "backwards," it will be necessary to list the vital social and economic problems of to-day, for these are the starting points in the teaching of history. Three leading New York newspapers, the *Times*, the *World*, and the *Evening Post*, were selected for analysis of their content in the hope of obtaining a comprehensive list of the outstanding political, social, and economic questions of 1924 through which history might be

introduced. News items, special articles, editorials, and book reviews were carefully scanned for thirty consecutive issues of each of these three dailies. The following tabulation sums up the questions that were reported or discussed:

I. Political Questions Having Only Domestic Significance
1. Home rule of cities
2. Efficiency in government. Government by experts or by politicians
3. Budget systems for state and nation
4. Initiative and referendum
5. Curbing the power of the Supreme Court of the United States
6. The Ku Klux Klan
7. Soldier care
8. Soldier bonus
9. National defense
10. Reorganization of the departments of state and federal government
11. Wage increase for postal workers. Relation of government employees to the government
12. Tax reduction
13. The third party movement
14. Socialism, communism, and the radical groups
15. Minority representation *v.* disenfranchisement of the minority

II. Questions Having Bearing on International Relations
1. Philippine independence
2. Movements for world peace
   (*a*) League of Nations
   (*b*) World Court
   (*c*) Disarmament
3. Reparations and guaranties
4. Immigration and immigrant quotas
5. Japanese exclusion
6. Recognition of Russia
7. Funding of foreign loans
8. Foreign elections

III. Social Questions

1. Housing and local transit facilities
2. Recreation of the masses. Park projects. Fall concerts and art exhibits
3. Social legislation affecting child labor, women in industry, factory regulations, sanitation in industry
4. Prohibition
5. Race questions
6. Americanization

IV. Economic Questions

1. Conservation
2. Minimum wage
3. Employee representation in industrial management
4. Public control and ownership of public utilities
5. Government regulation of industry
6. Revision of taxation
7. Tariff revision
8. Immigration
9. Farmer relief
10. Merchant marine
11. Relations between labor and capital
12. Questions affecting labor unions

V. Questions Concerning Progress of Education, Art, and Science

1. Adequate school provisions
2. Vocational education
3. Federal Department of Education
4. Educational foundations and progress in medical education
5. Teacher preparation and adequate teacher salaries
6. The moving pictures
7. The theater and reviews of plays
8. Art exhibits
9. Concerts and musical events
10. Development and control of radio communication
11. Literary reviews
12. Advances in science

Application of the Plan to Teach History "Backwards."—We have listed the avenues by which we may approach

the past. Any one of these topics may serve as an introduction to history. Let us take the question of immigration. The current newspaper discussion of the efficacy of the present quota provisions leads us to formulate, among others, the following questions:

1. What are the chief immigrant groups that make up our present population?
2. Where do they come from?
3. Why did they come here?
4. Where do they settle in the United States?
5. What gains have we derived from their coming?
6. What problems do they produce, coming in large numbers?
7. Is it wise to restrict the number, or shall we let them come in unlimited numbers, and solve the resulting problems as well as we can?
8. What has been our national policy towards immigration in the past? Whom have we excluded?
9. What has been the extent of immigration under our previous policy? What in our present national strength can we trace to the immigration of former years?
10. Who were the earliest immigrants when we were merely the colonists of England? When did they come and what colonies did they settle?
11. What facts must be stressed in contrasting colonial immigration with present-day immigration with respect to,
    (*a*) Sources of immigrants
    (*b*) Reasons for coming
    (*c*) Place of settlement
    (*d*) Adjustment to new conditions
    (*e*) Progress in new land
    (*f*) Industries developed
    (*g*) Ideals brought
    (*h*) Heritage left to the present
12. What is the significance of the oft heard statement: "America, the great melting pot of the world"?

Values of Teaching History "Backwards."—Each of these questions gives rise to many others. At every step history is developed by the solution of a vital problem that

serves as a challenge to the pupils. Civics, ethics, geography, and history mingle freely and produce real situations. In terms of orthodox chronological history the pupil learns, in the solution of these twelve questions, all that is usually taught under "Colonial Settlements" and "Cycles of Immigration." But instead of studying unrelated topics taken out of the past and laboriously related to the present, the pupil begins with a problem of immediate importance and goes into the past only to enrich his understanding of present institutional life. His attitude is liberalized; his self-activity is enlisted at almost every point; his textbooks become references to be consulted as definite needs arise, and not to be learned *seriatim,* topic by topic, according to the arbitrary assignments of his teacher.

Can History Be Taught "Backwards"?—Admitting the advantages, pedagogical and social, of the plan which begins the study of history in contemporary problems, we must not shut our eyes to practical teaching difficulties that follow as direct consequences of this plan. First, the problems of the day do not necessarily form a satisfactory criterion for the content of history. The problems of the day are frequently merely the questions of to-day and may be solved without reference to the past. Once settled, they may play an insignificant part in our national life. The curriculum must prepare for the problems of to-morrow. That schooling is successful which anticipates correctly the future needs of present pupils. We must teach therefore that subject matter in history which develops social intelligence. How many of the newspaper topics which were accorded no little space in the newspapers of the day refer only to temporary problems and will soon pass out of the field of public attention?

Second, there is gradation in chronological history which this kind of topical history too often lacks. Teaching

events in the order in which they occurred usually presents the simple before the complex. We lead up to our complex society by studying the mode of living in colonial times, in post-Revolutionary years, in the middle of the nineteenth century, and finally in the immediate present. Step by step, we show the evolution from simpler to more complex society.

To understand a contemporary problem we must know more about its historic setting. How can one evaluate the significance of issues such as immigration, home rule, merchant marine, vocational education, and race conflicts, without a liberal knowledge of the facts of economics, commercial geography, sociology, psychology, and a host of related subjects. Knowledge cannot be isolated and social problems cannot be limited to one field of human knowledge. What an array of related facts must be collected, analyzed, and systematized before coming to a conclusion about some of the problems listed as a result of a month's study of newspaper content? Is the pupil of elementary or junior high school age capable of understanding the problems that require so much correlated knowledge of the social sciences? Are we not running the danger of teaching words rather than ideas?

Third, there are considerations, other than contemporary social-economic life, that must play their full part in determining the content of the course in history. Art and literature, the humanities, are rich in allusion to historic events which moderately informed people are expected to understand. The stories of Columbus, John Smith, Wolfe and Montcalm, slavery, the Civil War, states' rights, the Revolution, the development of Alaska—these are all illustrations of topics that should receive no little stress, not alone because they throw light on problems of our day but also because they have been made the background of innumerable works of literature and art.

Fourth, there is no warrant for assuming that a pupil is interested in experiences mainly because they are of his day and his life. The real point of contact between history and the pupil is not temporal remoteness or proximity of events but rather the intimacy of relationship to the interests and attitudes of youth. What child of pubescent years concerns himself with home rule for cities, budget systems, tax reduction, third party movement, funding of foreign loans, minimum wage? But the stories of romance and adventure that make up the lessons on the exploration of the Missouri River by Lewis and Clark, the coming of the Puritans, Ponce de Leon's quest for the fountain of eternal youth—these have a real charm and are eagerly accepted by school children.

And, fifth, such a plan to teach history "backwards" requires for its successful application adequately trained teachers who are on intimate terms with all our social sciences and who have knowledge of history that is entirely adequate. Only the well informed and thoroughly trained can attain any degree of success with this plan of developing the course of study in history.

The plan to make every history lesson find its starting point in a contemporary problem is sound in theory and helpful in practice. In the absence of a carefully elaborated curriculum and with existing limitations of teaching personnel, it is clear that the prevailing method must be a combination of chronological and topical history that begins when possible in the present but always makes an earnest endeavor to apply the events of the past to the present so that they give meaning and spirit to the life of which we are a part.

Developing History to Serve as National Propaganda

There are those among our school people who would deny to history the prestige of a school subject with an identity

of its own. History, to them, is merely an instrument of propaganda; its sole function is to inculcate an intense national loyalty. To these ends, history is only a means.

This position imposes an unwarranted restriction upon the educational possibilities of history. Through skillful teaching of history, it was agreed, imagination is quickened, emotions refined, and thinking trained. Sympathetically taught, history is not without significant social consequences, for it instills those attitudes towards life which make for right living. History is a means to an end only in the sense that all school subjects are means to an end —the development of an independent socialized individual. The fundamental purpose of all history teaching is not to use on pupils an instrument of nationalistic propaganda but rather to give them a bird's-eye view of social evolution. Only as we reproduce in the mind of the child the mind of the race are we making for true social-mindedness that prompts social conduct.

How Far Shall the Truth Be Told in History?—Teachers who agree with our contention that history be accorded the dignity of a science and not dissipated in propaganda frequently ask to what extent shall the true facts of history be taught when these do not agree with traditional stories. Surely we must never compromise with falsehood. Nor must we dilute truth. But in our eagerness to serve truth we must not defeat the true inspirational values of history by introducing controversial subjects and needlessly dilate on incidents that portray derogatory motives or moral turpitude in those who have given unstintingly to the cause of human liberty.

Contentious subjects and controversial discussions have no place in a school textbook. Within the confines of the usual pupils' texts, even a skillful writer cannot set forth fully and with justice all the issues that are involved. The

danger of exhibiting personal attitudes, which, despite their sincerity, may be prejudices rather than facts, is always present. If the author should succeed in presenting a complete discussion of contentious questions with extreme impartiality, the class teacher may unintentionally descend to partisan exposition. Local prejudices or current popular sentiment may make impartial presentation of controversial questions well-nigh impossible. With children of school age it is the path of wisdom to concentrate on unchallenged facts and generally accepted beliefs.

Nor does truth demand that the mistakes or the occasional weaknesses of respected leaders be elaborated in text designed for immature school children. What if Hancock smuggled? His violation of a law which in that day was more honored in the breach than in the observance does not detract from the courage displayed in signing the Declaration of Independence. By that act, Hancock identifies himself with the opponents of the Crown. He had adequate reason to believe that in the event of failure of the rebellion, his property would be confiscated and he himself swung from a Haman's gallows. What if Jefferson was jealous of Washington and Hamilton? Granting that human infirmity, is Jefferson's contribution to the evolution of political liberty and to higher education in America dimmed? What if much of the suffering of the patriots at Valley Forge can be laid to the incompetence of those in the army supply department? What purpose is served by introducing these almost irrelevant facts? Why detract from the picture of inspiring courage and the story of unshaken loyalty to a cause? Should a pupil ask whether incompetence of officials in the supply departments intensified the suffering of these men, the answer must be the absolute truth as the teacher knows it. If the question is not asked, why inject it?

Acceptance of the policy which discourages footless dis-

cussion of human frailties does not carry with it the obligation of perpetuating untruth or condoning moral turpitude. There is no reason for teaching that the colonial population was overwhelmingly in support of the Revolution. There is less reason to justify the story of the flaxen-haired, blue-eyed boy who shouted "Ring, Grandfather! Ring!" to his feeble old progenitor who waited patiently for hours with palsied hands on the bell rope, that he might proclaim to the eager throng the news that the Declaration of Independence was signed. We know to-day that there was no breathless crowd awaiting the birth of the great American Magna Charta, that there was no blue-eyed lad to give the word, that there was no feeble old bell ringer, and that the document was not signed until the fall of 1776. The whole story is the invention of a hack writer of historic fiction. Why perpetuate the myth even if it does thrill?

Nor are we justified in failing to mention the ills that beset our growing democracy—disinclination to obey the government, lack of confidence in its stability, the errors of judgment of untrained voters, the frequent enthronement of the incompetent and the corrupt. There is a far-reaching purpose in setting these forth for they become starting points from which we can teach effectively and convincingly these simple truths: that our government has been a steady evolution to higher efficiency and richer social idealism; that our democracy is not a final stage in political development but rather an advanced step in social-political progress; that our democracy derives its strength and character from its citizenry; that governmental competence and honesty will be assured and individual liberties safeguarded only when each sovereign voter prepares himself to exercise his suffrage intelligently and in the spirit of a religious rite. Acts of moral laxity are introduced in our history teaching not merely because they are

true, but rather because they teach directly and unmistakably proper conduct in a highly socialized state.

Gradation in History

Regardless of the actual plan that is followed in developing the course of study in history, the same topic is often taught in two or more grades. Thus American history must be taught before the end of the sixth year. It is taught again in the junior high school years and again in the senior high school. The differences in teaching must, of course, be deeper than mere quantitative ones. What differences shall we make in teaching the story of Columbus or the settlement of Virginia to children in the fifth year and again to those in the seventh? Shall we teach more facts to the older pupil? Will this give them a deeper insight into historic problems and create an interest in history that will lead to further reading? Evidently the differences must be qualitative rather than quantitative.

The Factors in Gradation.—Gradation in history is determined by three vital factors:

1. The interpretation of history. Shall we teach history as mere story, as biographical studies, or as development of institutional life?
2. Ability of the pupils. To what mental capacities shall we make our appeal? Shall we teach history that stirs imagination primarily or shall the appeal be directly to reason?
3. The method of the recitation. Shall we teach history by telling the story, by developing problems or by a series of questions based directly on assignments in the class text?

Gradation in History Illustrated.—In teaching Columbus to a fifth-year class, history is presented either as a story or as a biography. The appeal is planned, therefore, to bring imagination into the focus of consciousness. To attain this end, the teacher tells as vividly as she can the life story of Columbus: the poor boy on the docks of

Genoa; his love of open sea; his dreams of the Orient and the riches of India and Cathay; his conviction concerning the rotundity of the earth; the quest for aid; the succession of failures; the treachery of Portugal; hope in Spain; the plea before Isabella and Ferdinand; help promised; the start; the endless seas; the attempt at mutiny; land sighted; the triumphal return; honor to the discoverer of the western route to India; the second and third trips; the death of Isabella; Columbus in chains; the victory of malice and jealousy; the end of Columbus. As the teacher's narrative proceeds, the pupils' imaginations picture the succession of scenes and make Columbus live again. They share his joys and suffer in his disappointments and tragedies.

Similarly, in the fifth year, the settlement of Virginia is told by the teacher as an interesting story of adventure. The appeal is essentially to imagination. Much is made of John Smith and the dramatic incidents in the life of the struggling colony. For these pupils, history is little more than happily selected pictures from the story of the development of the nation. The teacher takes the initiative and the pupils' reactions are not sought until the class has thoroughly enjoyed the whole story.

But in the seventh grade, history is taught as social development rather than as mere story or biography. The appeal is to the pupil's capacity to think, to discern relationships and to come to conclusions. The pupil takes the initiative while the teacher guides and stimulates. Columbus is now taught in relation to the age in which he lived. The characteristics and the needs of the fifteenth century are stressed. The advantages of a probable western all-water route are noted. The two concepts of the shape of the earth are compared, and Columbus is introduced as one of those who believes that the earth is round. The personal incidents in the life of Columbus are subordinated.

Columbus is merely the agent who proves that the earth is round and that the way to the Orient lies to the west. Columbus is clearly not the central figure of the story. He is now only an important incident. The logic of events and the development of civilization are now made central.

The lesson itself is not presented in narrative form. The teacher asks a series of questions or proposes problems that require reference to books and lead to spirited discussion. Thus, pupils must direct their activities along these lines of inquiry:

1. What evidence is there that some Europeans reached North America before Columbus? Who? When? Under what circumstances?
2. Why did the world forget these early discoverers?
3. What conditions in Europe in the 15th century awakened interest in new lands and led to new attempts to reach the Orient by an all-water route?
4. Did any navigators succeed in reaching India by a water route other than by sailing west? Why did this route not become popular?
5. What inventions of the day quickened navigation?
6. What reasons did informed people advance to justify their conviction that the world is round?
7. What traits of character does Columbus reveal throughout his whole life? Which of these led to the realization of his ambition?
8. What reasons would lead a sovereign to finance such an expedition as Columbus proposed?
9. What plans did Columbus make for the voyage?
10. What parts of the New World did Columbus touch in his first visit? In his second? In his third?
11. Why did the death of Isabella have a direct bearing on the power of Columbus? Why did Ferdinand fail to do as much for Columbus as Isabella?
12. Why did Columbus believe, to his dying day, that he had reached India? What observations might have led him to suspect that he had discovered new lands and new people?

13. Why was the new continent called America? What names applied to countries in the New World acknowledge our debt to Columbus?

14. What did Columbus' discovery mean for Spain? For other countries of Europe? For the Indians and other inhabitants of North and South America?

15. What should you read for a fuller story of Columbus?

16. Draw a map showing the coast line of Spain, the Atlantic Ocean, the eastern coast line of North America, the West Indies and the northern and eastern coast lines of South America. Draw three lines from Spain to the New World showing the three voyages of Columbus and the parts of the West Indies and the main land that Columbus secured for Spain.

At every step, books are consulted for data, and conclusions are challenged and verified. Much is read, and selected parts of the text are studied. Each question is only another reason for starting the search for facts on which pupils must base their thinking.

The settlement of Virginia, for seventh-grade pupils, is no mere story of adventure. It is a milestone on the road of American democracy. Pleasant incidents give way to the study of the development of a free and liberty-loving colony. The qualities that make for successful pioneer settlements, the significance of the strong leader, honesty of purpose as a force that leads to the permanence of a settlement, the introduction of self-government, the development of industry as conditioned by physical forces, the transplanted ideals, the new ideals sprung from primitive living, the growing spirit of autonomy, the development of education, attitude towards religion—these are problems that grow out of the discussions of such questions as why England sought to establish colonies, what forces in Europe tended to encourage colonization, and the purposes of the Virginian settlers. Once more history is learned through search for facts that answer questions and through active participation in spirited discussion.

As their capabilities are invested in purposeful activity, children develop. Carefully planned gradation, therefore, seeks to utilize the distinctive ability of pupils at every stage in their school course.

Time Allotted to History in the School Curriculum

The final question in analysis of the factors that govern the development of the course of study concerns itself with the time that is devoted to the subject of history. Government reports and inquiries by educational bodies lead to these conclusions:

The prevailing tendency is to give three recitations a week in the first three years and five recitations a week in the succeeding school years (fourth through ninth) to history teaching.

The length of periods ranges from twelve to fifteen minutes in the first year to thirty in the eighth and ninth years.

Of the total time required to teach the entire school course, 5 per cent is devoted to history in each of the first three years. This allotment gradually increases until history is given from 10 to 12 per cent of the total school time.

In a government report issued in February, 1925, on the time allotments to elementary school subjects in forty-nine cities of the United States having a population of over 100,000, the position which history holds in the school course is clearly seen.[1]

The accompanying table shows the average number of minutes per week given to (1) the distinctly social studies —history, civics, geography, and hygiene; (2) arithmetic

[1] Fred C. Ayer, "Time Allotments on the Elementary School Subjects," U. S. Bureau of Education, City School Leaflet No. 19, February, 1925.

and the formal subjects; (3) the expressional subjects. Ranking subjects according to the amount of time allotted them in the school curriculum, we find that history stood seventh in 1924, eighth in 1914, and tenth in 1904. For the corresponding years, geography stood fifth, fourth, and fourth, respectively. Clearly, a place of increasing importance is gradually being accorded these two social studies.

TIME ALLOTMENTS TO ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SUBJECTS IN FORTY-NINE CITIES OVER 100,000 POPULATION, IN MINUTES PER WEEK *

SUBJECTS	GRADES									GROUP TOTALS
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	Total	
1. Social Studies	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	.....	1,672
History	17	19	30	54	84	97	148	167	616	
Civics	9	12	11	12	14	15	23	27	123	
Geography	11	14	59	137	156	162	137	84	760	
Hygiene	16	16	18	22	27	27	25	22	173	
2. Arithmetic and the Formal Studies.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	.....	4,619
Arithmetic	64	143	193	206	211	211	212	211	1,451	
Reading	421	404	332	245	182	141	142	136	2,003	
Spelling	39	82	87	85	82	78	72	73	598	
Penmanship	67	72	77	78	77	75	63	58	567	
3. The Expressional Studies	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	.....	2,669
Language	130	141	167	176	187	194	207	215	1,417	
Drawing	87	88	87	86	82	75	77	79	661	
Music	71	74	74	77	76	74	70	75	591	

* Based on data in a table by Ayer in U. S. Bureau of Education Report, City School Leaflet No. 19, p. 2.

These figures mark the tendency in the United States as a whole. In history, as in all other school subjects, educational results are not conditioned, to a significant

extent, by the length of time that is accorded to it. The character of the course of study, the quality of teaching, the intelligence of the pupils, the preparation of the teacher and the helpfulness of the supervision—these, rather than the actual number of minutes allowed per week, will determine the effectiveness of the teaching of history.

Problems for Study and Discussion

The reader is referred to the end of Chapter XIII, page 185, for a list of problems.

CHAPTER XIII

THE CONTENT OF THE COURSE OF STUDY IN HISTORY

The history taught through the junior high school presents three distinct periods which are determined both by the demands of the subject itself and by the changing attitude of the maturing pupil. Clearly, the pupil of the first four years is entitled to a study of the past, but in his immaturity he must be given a story that is simple, dramatic, and capable of ready illustration. The pupil in the fifth and sixth grades is usually ten or eleven years old and has a simple background of everyday experience in terms of which he can interpret history that is more than a mere isolated dramatic incident in the life of a people. The child of the junior high school has a richer basis of formal information and informal experience that makes a more advanced type of history teaching both possible and necessary. We shall then attempt to formulate the history to be taught in these three periods:

1. History in the first four years
2. History in the fifth and sixth years
3. History in the junior high school

What Is Commonly Advocated for the First Four Years

There is no defined content in history for the primary grades. Personal opinion dictates the information to be taught as history. It may be helpful to list what is being done throughout the country.

Study of local communal activities.

Study of elementary processes: weaving, spinning, etc.

Study of types of civilization: Indian, herding or pastoral, simple agricultural, simple handicraft, old pirate and viking life.

Stories of romantic heroism. To illustrate: stories from the Iliad, the Odyssey, the Aeneid, the Norse Sagas, Nibelungenlied, King Arthur, and chivalry.

Stories of holidays and school celebrations: Thanksgiving Day, Washington's Birthday, July 4th, Flag Day, Armistice Day, Longfellow's Birthday, etc.

Stories of local history. Statues, commemorative tablets, historic houses in the pupil's vicinity, etc., serve to introduce stories of the past.

Tryon compiled reports from 259 schools and school systems received from 106 towns or cities in twenty-nine states of the United States and found that there was a strong tendency to familiarize the pupils with Roman myths and biographies, but a less persistent desire to teach similar Greek stories. Since 153 of Tryon's replies came from Indiana, the replies are not necessarily representative, but there is undoubtedly a growing belief in the value of Old World History for the fourth year.

Conclusion.—It seems clear that the aim of the first four years in the teaching of history is threefold:

1. To give young children a simple historic insight into the past by a study of some of the older types of civilization. Thus, the life of the Indians of the North, or of the Aztecs, or of the pastoral peoples of Biblical days may serve this end.
2. To familiarize children with the facts that explain the common celebrations.
3. To acquaint the children with a few of the most illustrious leaders in the history of mankind.

The children who, by the end of the fourth year, have made a study of two or three types of primitive people, have learned the stories associated with the commonly observed days, and who can identify fifteen or more of the

outstanding figures of world history have been given the formal history that seems most generally accepted by school people in America.

The History of the Fifth and Sixth Years

American history that is systematic and formal is usually taught in the fifth and sixth years. But here again, we find no common practice. In the fifth year some would teach all of American history in a severely biographical form. Thus, the life and achievements of Lief Ericson, Columbus, and Marco Polo serve as a means of teaching the discovery of America. Similarly, biographical studies of John Smith, William Penn, Oglethorpe, and Stuyvesant give the child his knowledge of the founding of Virginia, Pennsylvania, Georgia, and New Amsterdam. So, too, the life of Roosevelt is used as a focus for teaching the Spanish American War, the period of American imperialism and the events leading up to the outbreak of the World War. The story of the World War is taught in the life of Woodrow Wilson.

The course in history for the sixth year varies greatly. Some would continue the type of history taught in the fifth year, thus devoting two years to American biographies. Others would complete the study of biographies in the fifth year and would then spend the sixth year on English history, on the justification that they are giving their pupils a necessary basis for the more advanced American history of the junior high school grades. A third group would teach the whole of American history in this year, stressing the development of the most important events and making biography incidental. The sixth year is apparently an ill defined zone in the history taught in our schools.

There seems to be no compelling reason for differentiating in aim or spirit the work of the sixth year from that of the fifth. Nor is there any need of devoting two full

school years to exclusive biographical studies. These two years, fifth and sixth, ought to give the child a vivid and dramatic but, nevertheless, well developed story of American history. A severely biographical treatment produces difficulty in tracing events and maintaining the continuity of the story. To omit biographical studies impoverishes the course and adds to the teaching difficulties. Biographies must be introduced freely to give life and spirit to the narrative, but the narrative itself must be clearly maintained. To confine the whole story of American history to a single year, the sixth, crowds the work and forces the teacher to eliminate such historic data as give body and soul to the picture we ask the child to paint mentally. The four semesters of the fifth and sixth years give more reasonable allotment of time in which the content of American history can be unfolded with due regard to the undercurrents of European and world history. Then, too, it must be remembered that the schooling of not a few of our children ends with the sixth year. Surely, before they take their place in industry or commerce, these young people, the voting citizens of the next decade, should be introduced to a complete and well organized story of the development of present institutional life.

The History of the Junior High School

Place of History in the Junior High School Program.—Much has been done since the World War to insure greater effectiveness in the enforcement of compulsory education laws, to increase the age of compulsory school attendance, to suit courses of study to the needs of the pupils, and to adapt methods of teaching to their capacities. Were all efforts in these directions entirely successful, the net result would be to guarantee to every normal pupil an education of nine school years. To this end, the best energies of progressive school authorities are bent.

For a long time the junior high school will probably be the last stage in the formal education of most American citizens. The junior high school grades are, therefore, destined to play an increasingly important rôle in determining the life adjustments of American youth. Here, clearly, is the critical place where social studies must be emphasized and where relationships between individual and social institutions must be taught. The more successful the school is in making social studies the core of the junior high school curriculum, the more intimately does it enter into the lives of its pupils. What educational significance have the junior high school subjects—mathematics, geography, reading, drawing, or prevocational activities—other than to teach young people how to live? Prediction in the realm of social life is, at best, risky business. One cannot resist the conclusion that for generations, the junior high school will be the threshold over which American youth will step from school into active participation in our economic and social life. Much must be done, therefore, in these three school years to arouse an abiding interest in the contemporary problems of social living.

The Handicaps of History in the Junior High Schools.—History is having difficult going in our junior high schools. It is made too encyclopedic. Too much is attempted and therefore too little becomes an integral part of the pupils' intellectual possession. History is also unfortunately restricted to the United States. Not even the story of America is taught. All attention is focused on the development of the thirteen colonies into a strong nation. There is little evidence that the makers of the course of study realize that no nation develops in isolation and that to isolate the biography of a nation is to distort its story.

Junior high school history also suffers in many quarters from a prevailing practice of ending contemporary history in the eighth year and devoting the ninth year to ancient

history. Here we find much time devoted to a study of events of the remote past, to the elaboration of a story replete with detail and to the explanation of movements severely military and political without even a pretense of any relationship to the life that confronts the pupil. In the ninth year, when all effort must be concentrated on the development of insight into social questions, we present subject matter ill adapted to achieve our purpose.

And, finally, it must be noted that violence is often done to history in junior high schools by teaching it in isolation. Little is done to bring history into close relation to geography, civics, literature, or prevocational activities. In the departmentalization of instruction, each teacher looks upon himself as a teacher of a subject rather than as a teacher of youth. The teacher of geography is bent on his objectives and is too often completely unaware of the specific topics which his pupils are studying in the history room.

Teachers permit themselves to forget that there is scarcely a situation in life that is purely geographic, purely historic, or purely vocational. Every situation in life that is a real situation is at once a complexity of factors that are mathematical, social, geographic, and hygienic. We drill on facts of geography. When a situation arises in which this geographic knowledge is needed, the child often fails to make the application. Similarly, the child masters historic data. Does he apply this knowledge in the solution of a real social problem?

To know is one thing. To use, quite another. In certain school subjects, this lack of relationship is obvious. The child who can multiply any two numbers does not necessarily know how to solve a problem in which multiplication is necessary but not definitely indicated to him. History and geography have innumerable parallel instances. We are told that to join the League of Nations is to cede part of our sovereignty to a super-state. How many who

have studied the Critical Period bring forward a historical background to help them judge the validity of this assertion? How many ask themselves: Did not the states in 1789 fear the curtailment of their sovereignty by joining the new super-state, the United States of America? Are the situations parallel? How do the range of resources and the geographical distribution of the thirteen colonies compare with the nations in the League? Does the League guarantee the member nations as much freedom of individual action as our Constitution? How does the variety of people in the colonies compare with that of the nations in the League? Is membership in the family of nations as irrevocable as membership in the United States of America? How does the variety of governments in the colonies compare with the variety of governments in the League? Were the fears of 1789 groundless? Are present fears of reduced sovereignty as well founded or as baseless as those of 1789? History, civics, geography, and general information mingle in the search for an answer to a real question.

Another illustration may clinch the point under discussion. In this study of current events children note that in the recent tariff quarrels there seems to be an alignment of industrial interests against those that are agricultural. How many pupils who have studied the industries and products of the United States and the tariff struggles of earlier days see in the present-day tariff differences agriculturals pitted against industrials? In the pre-Civil War period, an agricultural South opposed the tariff schedules favored by an industrial North. The knowledge of geography and history acquired in isolation seems to stay, in most minds, in noncommunicating compartments and does not come forward to add meaning to a new problem in the process of solution. What is learned in isolation, stays in isolation. What is learned in relation to real problems tends more readily to inject itself into a new problem.

What Shall the Junior High School Course Contain?—Before planning a course in history for the junior high schools, we must agree on the two fundamental principles thus far evolved, namely:

1. The junior high school is essentially an instrument to help youth make its immediate outstanding social and economic adjustments.

2. History must be taught in relation to the life situations destined to arise in the problems of social adjustment.[2] With

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[2] At the Ben Bluett Junior High School, history is made part of a social-science course which is taught five hours a week throughout the course. The project character of the course is set forth in the following quotation:

"Social studies in the seventh grade correlate history and geography and consist of four series of ten projects each, one project weekly per quarter, under four major problems: (1) First quarter: the origin of American History as found in the civilization around the Mediterranean before A.D. 1500 . . . (2) Second quarter: struggle for freedom and empire from 1492 to 1620. . . . (3) Third quarter: world affairs between 1620 and 1763 as influenced by the desire for political and economic freedom, for wealth and economic independence, and for commercial and political empire. (4) Fourth quarter: the war of American independence, its causes and beginnings, its relation to the sea power of England, and its importance as one of the great events of history.

"Social science in the eighth grade proceeds purely upon the topical basis in American history as a story and interpretation of our democracy, quite openly discarding chronological sequence. . . . The ninth grade organizes its community civics in the first half year on the basis of Dunn's *Community Life,* and its second half-year course in the vocations on the background of Gowan and Wheatly's *Occupations.*" *School Review,* Vol. 23, No. 1, January, 1920, pp. 35 *ff.*

The Report on Social Studies in Secondary Schools published by the United States Bureau of Education (1916, No. 28, p. 15) suggests the following alternate program for the junior high schools:

Seventh year:
(1) Geography—½ year.
European history—½ year.
These two courses may be taught in sequence, or parallel throughout the year.
Civics—taught as a phase of the above and of other subjects, or segregated in one or two periods a week, or both.

these principles in mind, we suggest the following course of study for the junior high school:

SUGGESTED COURSE OF STUDY IN SOCIAL SCIENCES FOR THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

THE YEAR	PRESCRIBED SUBJECT MATTER IN				
	History	Geography	Civics		Hygiene and Social Sanitation
			Government	Ethics	
Seventh.	American *origins* in world history. Outstanding biographies.	Study of geography of countries in whose achievements we find our origins.	Simple story of origin of government. Need and function of government.	Relation of individual to large impersonal society.	Story of old notions of health and sanitation. Modern views and example of their applications.
Eighth..	American *institutions*. Their history and development.	Commercial geography of United States and of the leading nations with whom we maintain commercial relations.	Federal and state government. Other governments in comparison.	Question of national and racial loyalty and relationship of nations and races.	Safeguarding health of a nation. Control of immigration. The factors that safeguard life and health in modern civilization.
Ninth...	American *problems* in the light of their historic setting.	Physical and economic geography necessary for understanding of our present American problems.	Local government. Vocational civics.	Relation to vocational life. Ethics of business.	Vocational hygiene and forms of recreation.

We have just proposed a course of study founded upon fundamental principles and controlled by definite aims.

Or, (2) European history—1 year.
Geography—taught incidentally to, and as a factor in, the history.
Civics—taught as a phase of the above and of other subjects, or segregated in one or two periods a week, or both.

The subjects that deal with the processes of living are closely interrelated. In each year of the junior high school course, the geography gives color and life to the history; government contributes as much to both geography and history as they give to it; the ethical implications in the history, government, and even in the geography are fully utilized; the related problems in health and community well being are taught with a suitable background. The whole course is continuous, graded, interrelated, and designed to give clear conception of the meaning of living together in modern society.

Further explanation of the course in history. A glance at the first vertical column in the tabular summary shows that the succession of topics in American history is *origins, institutions, problems.* The seventh year is given to a study of American origins in Europe, the history of the mediæval period, the significance of the Crusades, the death of feudalism, the restlessness of the reconstructed society, the suppression of the individual, the rule of divine right, the quest for gold, the religious fervor of both clergy and laity, the Renaissance, the new worldliness, the search for an all-water route to the Orient and the lure of Cathay. An adequate background is thus painted and relates the whole movement of discovery, exploration, and colonization of America to the history of the world.

Eighth year:
American history—½ year.
Civics—½ year.
These two courses may be taught in sequence, or parallel through the year.
Geography—taught incidentally to, and as a factor in, the above subjects.

Ninth year:
(1) Civics: Continuing the civics of the preceding year, but with more emphasis upon state, national, and world aspects (see pp. 25, 26)—½ year.
Civics: Economic and vocational aspects (see pp. 26–29)—½ year.
History: Much use made of history in relation to the topics of the above courses.
Or, (2) Civics—economic and vocational.
Economic history. 1 year, in sequence or parallel.

Carefully selected biographical studies add materially to the story of American origins. These should include representatives from the following groups:

1. Great Biblical characters.
2. Inspiring religious leaders: Moses, Christ, Confucius, Mohammed, St. Benedict, Luther, etc.
3. Great reformers and leaders in the world's culture: Pericles, Cincinnatus, Augustus, Erasmus, Frederick the Great, etc.
4. Great warriors and rulers: Lycurgus, Hannibal, Alexander, Caesar, Charles the Great, Alfred the Great, William the Conqueror, Joan of Arc, Elizabeth, Frederick Barbarossa, Isabella.
5. Great artists: Phidias, Myron, Michelangelo, Lorenzo de' Medici.
6. Great scientists and inventors and discoverers: Aristotle, Marco Polo, Copernicus, etc.
7. Great writers: a representative of Greek and of Roman literature, Dante, Shakespeare, etc.

These biographies, supplementing the world-famous names selected in earlier years, make a fairly comprehensive list and give children a historic background that is informative, useful, and interesting.

In the eighth year, the development of American institutions is made the core of the course. Here we include such topics as: pioneer life and its significance, the frontier in American life; the origin and development of self-government, the story of democracy; the story of free speech and free press; trial by jury and development of legal guaranties; American public education, from the free public schools through the state universities; religious freedom and toleration; America the haven of the oppressed; the traditional dislike for alliances with foreign powers; America for Americans, the Monroe Doctrine; the protection of the individual through social legislation; the development of American commerce and industry; large-scale production and the growth of corporations. The

pupil is thus given a topical course in history which is enriched at every turn by the other social studies.

The ninth-year study of American history begins with outstanding problems in political and social life. After noting the significance of a problem, it is analyzed and its historic development is traced in the interest of further and fuller understanding. In the discussion of the next topic, the unified social-science course, the reader will find a large number of illustrations of the type of problems recommended for this year.

It may be urged that we have prescribed a course without a full realization of the limitations of mind and experience of the junior high school pupil. Some may point to senior high school courses and to college courses on "Origins of American Life and Institutions," "Development of American Institutions," "Problems in Contemporary American Civilization." University seminar courses are given on the development of democracy in America. These critics must not fail to draw a sharp distinction between titles and content. It is our aim to present the simple phases of institutional life of America in the hope of facilitating the pupils' social adjustments which, for most students, are not very far off. The study of immigration cited in an earlier discussion [3] is not above pupils of junior high school age. Yet the subject of American immigration is made the central theme of graduate courses in economics or sociology. Each of the problems and institutions listed above may be studied on various planes of difficulty and with varying intensity. What is true of these social subjects is equally true in the pure sciences. General science is taught in the junior high school, the senior high school, and in the junior college. Similar topics, such as ventilation, are introduced in all three courses. Yet the content

[3] See p. 148.

is so varied that each grade of pupil learns new material and is called upon to exercise keener thinking. The assumption, at all times, is that methods of teaching and subject matter will be adjusted to the capabilities of the pupils.

The Single Social-Science Course for the Junior High School

The Plea for a Unified Social-Science Course

A curriculum has unfortunately always been an accumulation of subjects, each logically developed but each maintaining its own identity. The daily program of class activity provides now for a study of arithmetic, then for spelling; these lessons are followed by another in history; composition may come next, but it has as little to do with the preceding studies as with the geography, civics, drawing, and hygiene that follow. We thus recognize history, geography, and civics, as three distinct subjects which constitute the chief ingredients of the group known as the social studies.

The activities of life present no such isolation of experience. Hence, the argument runs, why maintain so sharp a conflict between life and curriculum. It is this very segregation in the curriculum that makes the content of school studies so intensely artificial. The ideal curriculum presents a series of problems that arise naturally in the lives of pupils. The solution of these problems constitutes the essence of education. Hence, the argument concludes, overthrow the logical development of American history that begins with the Aztecs, the mound builders, the Indians and Columbus, and then chronologically arrives at current events; abolish the geography that starts with a study of the surface of the earth and includes in sequence the United States, the rest of North America, South Amer-

ica, Europe, Asia, Africa, Australia; drop, for all time, from the school course, the civics with its local, state, and federal government and their divisions and subdivisions. Present rather a series of social problems that challenge every intelligent citizen. Pursue each problem in search of a satisfying conclusion and your pupil will acquire, bit by bit, a body of highly unified knowledge that is helpful in meeting other social problems. The plea then is not for a correlation of geography, history, civics, sanitation, and ethics but rather for an integration of them into a single subject composed of vital social problems. Assurance is given that after three years of such training in the solution of social problems the pupils will have effective mastery of all that is worth while in the present courses in history, geography, and civics.

Examples of Unified Social Science

The teacher who, while presenting the territorial expansion of the United States as the next topic in a logical course in history, makes full use of the map and assigns much map drawing, is merely correlating two subjects. This is an illustration of orthodox correlation in teaching. The teacher of the social-science course does not think in terms of history or geography. His whole concern is with the formulation of an appealing social problem. His primary effort is to arouse and direct the coöperative activities of the class to the solution of such questions as the following:

1. Cities are comparatively new. Fifty years ago we were rural dwellers; now we are city communities.

   (*a*) When did this change come about?
   (*b*) What produced this far-reaching change in our lives?
   (*c*) What are the desirable consequences that this shift from country to city produced? the undesirable?

(*d*) How can we overcome the undesirable results of city living?
(*e*) To what extent has this change occurred in other important countries?

2. Here are pictures which show us the processes followed in 1825 and in 1925 in agriculture, industry, and commerce (pictures shown).

(*a*) What are the outstanding differences achieved by one century?
(*b*) Why is it said that this is the age of steam, steel, and electricity?
(*c*) By what stages did steam, steel, and electricity become the rulers of life to-day?
(*d*) What hardships did they bring to mankind as they developed their increasing control of life?
(*e*) What blessings did they bring?
(*f*) What geographic forces favored their development in the United States? In each of the important nations of the earth?
(*g*) How did mankind adjust itself to them?
(*h*) Are any of the problems of adjustment to steam, steel, and electricity still unsolved?
(*i*) What does the government do to protect us from the tyranny of steel, steam, and electricity?

Similar questions can be formulated on conservation of resources, changes in agriculture, relation of worker to industry, reclamation of land, the revolution in transportation, the development of communication, the tariff and national prosperity, protection of workers, control of industry by government, protection of the community from the power of both capital and skilled labor, the rise of American imperialism, and our reluctant entrance into international disputes. To answer any of these questions one needs much of the knowledge that is usually found in the commonly used books in history, geography, civics, and hygiene. The pursuit of these questions gives one a

body of social knowledge that makes up the type of course now fathered by such schools as Lincoln School of Teachers College of Columbia University.

The Case for the Unified Social-Science Course

The position of those who would abandon the separate subjects and substitute the study of social science is determined by two sets of values, pedagogic and social. These teachers make out a case that is worthy of serious thought.

Pedagogic Considerations.—It is obvious that the course in social science suggested above presents subject matter that is highly motivated. Each topic introduces a new need of life and gives the mind a set towards a definite and intelligent goal, the solution of a genuine problem.

The pupil is thus given more than a passing incentive to study. He is taught to formulate a definite goal for his activities and to plan for its attainment. He has, further, a measure of the success of his efforts—the comprehension of the problem. Surely the pupil who seeks purpose, plans his work, and scrutinizes his results has acquired very vital study habits.

Under the proposed social-science plan, isolation of historic subject matter is successfully overcome. If the problem is to trace the influence of the frontier on our development, then history gives way to geography, and geography falls back on history and civics for verifications. How can one study the history of immigration between 1870 and 1920 without including much that is significant in the geography of Europe, and without emphasizing social and political conditions in England, Ireland, France, Germany, and Russia? The dividing line between subject and subject is almost completely obliterated in the unified presentation of a real situation.

Moreover, the stock of facts, by this very unification, is not repeated as frequently as in the curriculum of isolated

subjects. With the growing complexity of modern life, there is increasing insistence on the addition of new branches of knowledge. The school curriculum presents a distressingly wide stream of information. The more the kindred topics of different subjects are interrelated, the narrower does the stream of knowledge tend to become. Time is thus saved for intensive study of closely related data.

This interrelation by establishing, for any line of thought, a host of associations thus makes for longer retention and readier recall. The pupil is thus given more effective control of his stock of information.

One of the greatest arguments in favor of this system is that knowledge acquired in the solution of a real situation is knowledge that can more readily be made to function. It is well known that the pupil who has perfect mastery of the principal parts of a verb and recites glibly, *go, went, going, gone,* may persist in saying, *I have went to school.* Specific facts should be acquired in situations that call for use, for function. Hence facts must be learned in associations similar to those in which they occur in everyday life. The social-science course, properly taught, is undoubtedly a vigorous and effective means of training children to think about the problems of community life.

Social Considerations.—It is obvious that history learned in a course in social science does not content itself with mere references to present-day movements. On the contrary, the problems of the day are subjected to systematic and persistent study because from the very start they are forced into the focus of attention.

Another advantage of the proposed unified social-science course is that it offers an objective standard for determining what to include in a course in history. No longer does personal preference or local prejudice dictate the content of history. That historic data must be given which con-

tributes definitely towards the understanding of contemporary social problems.

Moreover, this type of course tends to develop an abiding interest in social questions and to arouse a desire for pursuing the discussions of important current events. We have here a system of teaching that gives promise of training for understanding and participating citizenship.

The Case for the Retention of Separate Subjects

Serious objections are raised to the unified social-science course by no small group of well informed and progressive teachers. They point to the ungraded character of the material that results from such a course of study. Unless children understand the basic concepts of physical and economic geography, they cannot participate intelligently in the discussion of any of the illustrative questions cited above. On the other hand, a problem may seem simple from the geographic point of view, but its solution may sweep the class into civic and historic waters too deep for fledglings. In the study of immigration, the child must codify a rich mass of material pertaining to the geography of leading countries of Europe. To arrest the study of the problem under consideration, for example, immigration, while the necessary geographic data are acquired, may often prove fatal to the question that initiated the entire effort. Very often it is forgotten. By maintaining an unmistakable identity of geography, history, civics, social hygiene, and ethics, it is possible to develop each subject systematically with due regard to gradation of subject matter and the progression of basic concepts.

In the second place, it is pointed out that interrelating knowledge sharpens the understanding of it only in those minds that know the facts brought into association. To correlate and associate data only vaguely comprehended leads to helpless confusion. Hence the conclusion that

individual subjects should be mastered before they are interrelated and used to solve large social problems.

It is further urged that to inject young people into discussions like those proposed gives them a false sense of their power. Without facts, the ablest mind must not formulate a conclusion. True, each of us is entitled to his opinion. But the vital implication is inescapable—that justifying data be acquired first. Every open-minded student of oversocialized recitations knows that very frequently such recitations in secondary schools degenerate into useless talk, and in higher education, into a stubborn adherence to thoroughly uninformed opinion.

And, finally, it would probably be calamitous to prescribe this social-science course to-day for many schools. We must always reckon with our host. Teachers of history, geography, and civics are not ready to administer such a course. They must undergo a process of training. Old intellectual affiliations must be weakened, a sympathetic attitude towards the proposed course must be developed, and a liberal body of new knowledge must be gathered, systematized, and adapted to local needs. To impose the new course without adequate training and without suitable textbooks and teaching equipment would result in little more than another grand gesture in the education of youth.

Evaluation of the Social-Science Course

Not one of the limitations of the social-science course presents an insurmountable obstacle. Social problems can be graded and fundamental facts can be acquired slowly and surely even though they are introduced incidentally in the pursuit of a higher end. To deny this is to deny the possibility of learning from the unorganized, ungraded, and informal experiences that present themselves to us daily. What we need is not continued debate on the merits and limitations of the course. Debate is not an instrument

for evolving truth. We must rather work out the new course and accompanying textbooks slowly and experimentally, changing content, organization, and gradation according to revealing experiences. Results must be subjected to tests administered under scientific conditions. We must not permit ourselves at present to come to a final conclusion but await the product of the pioneer effort of professionally minded teachers.[4]

World History in the Elementary Course

Place of General History in the Nine-Year Course

Much has happened to shake America's complacent faith in its isolation. No incident could have been less related to our national life than the murder in distant Serbia of Archduke Franz Ferdinand, heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary; but, before the roar of the cannons ceased, the blood of our youth stained the soil of France. Rumbles in China and the mutterings in the Balkans may be the forebodings of mightier upheavals that will drag us into their midst as surely as the events of 1914. Famine in Russia and pestilence in India open our coffers and a stream of gold from private purses and national treasury flows freely to succor stricken mankind. And still many of us believe that we are successfully maintaining our isolation because the oceans to east and west have not yet dried up.

We cannot rid ourselves of the notion of isolation because it is ingrained in the history that was taught us. To-day, as in the past, we teach not the story of mankind, not the story of the western hemisphere, not even the story of the continent of North America—merely the story of one

[4] Harold Rugg, Earle Rugg, Emma Schweppe, "The Social Science Pamphlets" (Lincoln School of Teachers College of Columbia University).

country, and with emphasis on one section of it. We teach "The History of the United States" in the most restricted sense of the title.

Van Loon and Wells have unearthed no new history. Their generalizations are often challenged successfully by professional historians. But they have made a significant contribution to history teaching. Both *The Story of Mankind* and *The Outline of History* show clearly that the life of one nation is most intimately related to the life of the whole civilized world. Unless world history is taught before the end of the ninth school year, our school graduates will not understand that our history is rooted deep in European and Asiatic history.

No nation achieves its own civilization. Every nation, the most productive, takes from mankind as much as it gives. Civilization is a world rather than a national product. Without this larger setting, the history of the United States is neither complete nor accurate. For these reasons many states have adopted survey courses in world history in which there is given an adequate background to United States history.

Extent of Recognition of World History

Investigations reveal the fact that of forty states having data available in 1924, thirteen made definite provision for world history as well as United States history, and twenty-six for United States history alone. Of the thirteen states, there are almost as many east of the Mississippi River as west of it. Although the number of states prescribing world history has increased since 1917, the tendency to restrict the teaching of school history to United States history is clearly the predominating one.[5]

[5] Conclusions based on data gathered by seminar students under the direction of the writer.

Where Shall World History Be Taught?

General or world history is assigned to various grades. In nine states it is taught in the whole of the sixth year; in two states, in the first half of the sixth year; in one state, in the sixth and seventh years; in one state, in the first five years. Evidently the sponsors of world history disagree on the school year when it should be taught.

In the course in history as set forth in the early parts of this chapter, world history would be taught in two cycles: first as part of the introductory content of the first four years and second, as a vital part of the seventh year work which is devoted to *origins* of American life and institutions. In this first year of the junior high school course, selection of historic material is made from the history of Europe during the five centuries beginning with the thirteenth and ending with the early eighteenth. But European background must be continued through the whole junior high school course. The pupil must always see the parallel development in the chief nations of the world and make comparisons with the march of progress in the United States. World history need not be taught as a separate subject in the courses of study in history devoted chiefly to the United States. Under this condition, the more it is integrated with the history and civics of the United States and with the geography of the world, the greater will be its contribution towards an understanding of the development and significance of present social institutions.

Illustrative Prescription in World History

An illustrative course is here presented not that it be copied but rather that it may serve as a starting point in working out a year's course in general history and American origins. The course is planned to cover two semesters of work given in three twenty-five minute lessons a week.

1. Introduction. Dates and their meaning: an attempt at orientation.

2. The Jews: Their contribution to morality and religion; monotheism in the age of idolatry; their ancient home; life as prescribed by their religion; the wandering people; Palestine to-day.

3. The Greeks: Why we remember the Greeks; the Greeks as builders and artists; spread of Greek culture; what in our life is of Greek origin.

4. The Romans: Beginnings of Rome; Roman conquest of Italy; Roman conquest of Mediterranean lands; Roman conquest in the west; the Roman Empire; Rome and Christianity; what in our life is of Roman origin.

5. The Germanic Peoples: The German tribes; conversion of Germans to Christianity; overthrow of the Roman Empire in the west; German conquest of Britain; King Alfred the Great; Norman conquest of England; Norman kings acknowledge right of the people.

6. Life in Europe during Middle Ages: Feudalism; chivalry; crusades and religious fervor; the status of education and rise of universities.

7. The Renaissance: The new point of view; enjoyment of earthly life not incompatible with Christian ideals; forces that produced the Renaissance; evidence of the new order; great inventions and resulting improvements in living.

8. The Movement for a Larger World: The attempt to explore the world; great explorers; Columbus and America; other discoverers and the lure of the Northwest Passage.

9. Spanish Conquests of America.

10. European Ambitions in America: Spain, France, England, Holland—extent of activities of each; success and failures of each; successful claims established by each.

11. European Institutions Transplanted in America: What in American life is European; what is distinctly the product of New World conditions.

12. European Conditions that Shaped American Colonies: Study of colonization as result of European conditions; development of colonies; European conditions that determined events in the colonies; the alienation of the colonies.

By this plan we bring the pupils to the outbreak of the Revolutionary War in one year's work. But it is clear

that we give a rapid review of the development of modern civilization from the Jews, the Greeks, and the Romans through centuries of Christianity to the middle of the eighteenth century. The succeeding history of the United States develops in relation to world affairs in general and European conditions in particular. In the succeeding study, world history, or general history, runs parallel with United States history. To isolate world history after 1783 for junior high school pupils in American schools may give as distorted a view as to teach the history of the United States with only an occasional side glance at European history.

Problems for Study and Discussion

1. Distinguish *subjective judgment* from *objective standard.* Which of these determines the content of existing courses of study in grammar, geography, arithmetic, civics?

2. To what extent and in what ways may inability to develop a commonly accepted content of American school history retard the development of effective methods of teaching history?

3. Test an eight-year class on the twenty dates which in the judgment of professional historians should be known by all pupils. Arrange the scores of the pupils in descending order. Arrange the dates showing the frequency of error.

4. Analyze the textbook that is used by the greatest number of pupils in your school. What part of the total book is devoted to each of the following periods: 1860–1865; 1873–1899; 1815–1860; 1492–1600?

5. Do you approve of the following allotments of space in a textbook: discovery and exploration, 10 per cent; colonial devel- Revolutionary War, 10 per cent; 1783–1789, 5 per cent; 1789– opment, 15 per cent; pre-Revolutionary period, 10 per cent; 1815, 10 per cent; 1815–1860, 10 per cent; 1860–1865, 10 per cent; 1865–1899, 15 per cent; 1899–1925, 5 per cent? What readjustments would you make? Give reasons.

6. The content of history should be determined by the following considerations:

(*a*) The need to understand historic references in serious newspaper and magazine articles.

(*b*) The need to understand art and literary allusions to historic situations.
(*c*) The need to know the stories and the heroes that have become household tales.
(*d*) The need to understand the traditions that have developed in the past.
(*e*) The need to see civilization in the process of development.

What other considerations should determine the content of the course of study?

7. What is the relative importance of the considerations listed above? Justify the place you assign to each.

8. Plan, in very general terms, a course of study in history for the first six years, based on the culture-epoch theory. Which of the elements of strength and of weakness discussed in the text are found in this course of study?

9. What considerations have led to the acceptance of the culture-epoch theory as a basis of curriculum making? What facts, revealed in recent excavations of ancient seats of civilization, seem to lay the ax to this theory?

10. Select a course of study which prescribes history for the first eight or nine years of the school course. What evidence of spiral development do you find in this course of study? Are similar topics assigned to two or more grades? Does the course of study indicate differences in content and method that must be kept in mind in teaching the same topic to different grades? what specific guidance is given the teacher in this respect?

11. "While we may succeed in teaching certain topics in history by beginning with the present and developing them 'backwards,' we have as yet no satisfactory plan for teaching all of history in this way."

Select, from the outline of "Questions of the Day," in Chapter XII, a topic that can be taught backwards. Do you agree with the position taken by the author of this citation? Why?

12. The Revolutionary War is often prescribed for the 5B (fifth year, second half) and for the 7B (seventh year, second half). How would you grade the two types of lessons? Indicate all the changes in content and method you would make to adjust the lessons to the pupils of the two grades.

13. Study the table of time allotments to elementary school subjects set forth at the end of Chapter XII. What part of the school week goes to the social sciences? What part of the time allotted to the social sciences is given to geography? To history

and civics? Does this allotment of time give to each group of subjects a place in the school curriculum corresponding to its place in life? Give your reasons in full for the position you take.

14. What part of the school population of the local community you know best, leaves school at the end of the sixth year? What history is taught these pupils? What would you add to this stock of knowledge in the interests of good citizenship?

15. What facts of your local school community justify the acceptance or rejection of the prophecy, "For generations, the junior high school will be the threshold over which American youth will step from school into active participation in our economic and social life."

16. Select the course of study in history prescribed for the junior high school by a leading American city. Analyze the course in history and in the other social studies (geography and civics). In what respects are the courses in these subjects similar to the course recommended in Chapter XIII? In what respects dissimilar?

17. Illustrate the following from the teaching of the social studies:

(*a*) To the child, life is a complete and thoroughly unified experience. To the curriculum maker, life is composed of a series of unrelated subjects. A conflict between child and curriculum is inevitable.

(*b*) Facts must be acquired in relations similar to those in which they are found in life. Any other mode of learning does not enable pupils to apply their knowledge to real situations.

(*c*) Every school subject should train children to perceive their goal very clearly and then to plan for its attainment. No step should be taken until these two preliminaries in thinking have been accomplished.

(*d*) In teaching a subject, a primary aim is to inculcate a new set of interests.

(*e*) Interrelating knowledge sharpens comprehension in those minds that know the primary facts. Where basic facts are not well comprehended, interrelations are premature and lead to confusion.

18. Examine a commonly used school textbook in history. How much world history is taught before the discovery of America? How much European background is given between 1815 and 1914? What does the book do to lead the child to relate United States history to the history of mankind?

PART IV

METHODS OF TEACHING HISTORY

CHAPTER XIV

THE RECITATION

Types of Recitation

The social sciences lend themselves to an especially rich variety of teaching procedures. Every type of recitation may be used with profit in the teaching of history and civics. It is the purpose of this chapter to present the various types of recitation with illustrations taken from various phases of history and government. It must be borne in mind that as in other subjects there is no method of teaching history. There are *methods* of teaching. Nor is it essential that a recitation follow a fixed procedure of any one type. Forms of recitation may be combined and modified to meet the exigencies of a particular occasion.

The Inductive Recitation

Its Place in Teaching.—Despite the progress of recent psychology, the method-whole with its five formal steps still persists as a favorite recitation. It is popular because it has a definite form. Its organization is helpful; it insures inductive procedure which begins with specific instances and evolves, in the fourth step, generalizations; its third step, the comparison, makes for interesting review of the material presented in the second step, the presentation; the final step stresses applications by the pupil. Here is a definite procedure for arousing pupil-activity which is not unlike learning by experience.

Illustration of Method-Whole.—Let us assume that the question of Chinese and Japanese exclusion is to be taught. The method-whole may be followed with effect in this lesson.

The preparation. A few judicious questions elicit the facts that our population has increased in two ways: (1) by births and (2) by immigration; that we have attracted an inordinate number of immigrants; that immigration must be controlled; that Congress has recently enacted immigrant legislation. Here are the facts on which to build. This then is the *apperceptive basis.*

We must now introduce the aim of the lesson with adequate motivation. A newspaper reference to the abrogation of the unwritten gentleman's agreement with Japan prompts the question: "Do we not treat the Japanese as we do other nations?" Many newspapers printed the picture of the Japanese officials at the grave of the student who committed suicide as a protest against our action. This gives the teacher a more dramatic means of introducing a motivating *aim.* Another way of meeting the situation is to read the newspaper report of the status of the various immigration quotas, and then to ask: "Why are not the Chinese and Japanese quotas listed? What must we therefore find out in to-day's history lesson?"

The presentation. From books, magazine articles, and newspaper accounts made accessible to the class the following facts are acquired:

1. Unrestricted immigration (except such undesirables as chronic invalids, insane, criminals, and those likely to become dependents on the community) the policy of the United States up to 1918.

2. Postwar conditions and the demands of industry force restriction.

3. The immigration after 1890 shows a preponderance from the south and east of Europe; up to 1882, from northern Europe. The former often regarded as less desirable and less assimilative.

4. The belief that we must admit fewer foreigners and concentrate on the assimilation of those already here.

5. The vast importation of Chinese coolies for road building. Their standards of living and wages very low. The problem. The demand for exclusion. The exclusion of Chinese by explicit Act of Congress in 1882. The admission of Chinese merchants, diplomats, students, and travelers. Result: Chinese a negligible percentage of our population even in the extreme West.

6. The Japanese question in the West. The area and population of Japan. Need for outlet. Number of Japanese in California. The crisis in 1906. The compromise effected by Roosevelt: the gentleman's agreement to prevent emigration of unskilled labor from Japan to the United States. The law of California denying Japanese right to own land. The proposal to pass Japanese exclusion law. The protest by Japanese Ambassador to the United States. The passage of the law in 1924. Japan takes offense. Feelings of the Japanese.

7. The full significance of our relation to Japan.

The comparison. Now that the "case is all in" and all pertinent facts have been gathered, we must live with them for a while. Questions are asked that lead pupils to compare our immigration policy of the past with that of the present; our attitude towards European immigration with our attitude towards the Asiatic; our action towards Japan with our action towards China.

The generalization. The class is now ready to formulate a few guiding principles as a result of the study of the Japanese question. Through questions the teacher elicits the following:

1. Every nation has the right to regulate its policy of immigration.

2. Immigration policies are determined by questions of national welfare.

3. A nation may exercise the right of limitation and exclusion.

4. The right of exclusion must be exercised cautiously and justly for it is bound to give offense and strain international relations.

The application. The pupils are now called upon to show their knowledge in some of the various ways listed below:

1. Debate. Was the United States wise in passing the Japanese Exclusion Act of 1924? Would the quota law not have served the same purpose and given less offense to Japan?
2. Discussion. Was Japanese resentment justified? What would be the answer as given by a Japanese? By a Californian? By a citizen of, say, New York, where there is no Japanese question.
3. Written Composition. A well formulated topic based on the questions suggested above is assigned for a short essay.
4. Supplementary Reading. Books and stories dealing with the Japanese question or the general immigration problem.

In other lessons the application may take the form of map drawing, making pictures and diagrams or creating an actual object, planning pageants or a play. Any means that leads children to make direct use of their knowledge is usually an effective application.

Evaluation of the Inductive Lesson.—The type of recitation here illustrated is effective in topics that lend themselves to comparison and generalization and yet do not run out of bounds. To apply this method to a war or a large movement is an undertaking that holds out little hope of effective teaching. Despite its values, the method-whole is a type of recitation in which the teacher takes the initiative, plans the development, decides on the facts to be included and the conclusions to be reached. The pupil is a mere follower. He thinks the teacher's thoughts and accepts the teacher's convictions.

The Lecture Recitation

Its Place in Teaching.—There are situations when much must be told and the teacher must do the telling. As a rule, some form of development through questions and an-

swers, or through directions to find data and conclusions in an assigned text, is a decidedly superior mode of teaching than lecturing. In a subject like history, the lecture method must be employed with greater frequency than in any other school subject. The reasons are many.

The content of history is often the story of events that cannot readily be inferred. The life of Roosevelt, the conditions in Cuba that brought intervention of the United States, the purchase of Hawaii, the construction of the Panama Canal, the military practices of the World War as contrasted with those of the Civil War—these are a few of the topics that must be told either by the book or by the teacher. Considering the limitations of the pupils, the duty of telling devolves upon the teacher.

Very frequently a point of view must be unfolded and thoroughly illustrated until it is vividly imaged by the pupils. At other times it becomes necessary to evoke enthusiasm or whole-hearted sanction or forceful condemnation. No book can achieve this end with pupils of school age. Nor is a method of development through questions and answers designed to inculcate any of these attitudes. The teacher must tell, and must tell enthusiastically and sincerely.

There are occasions when there is urgent need of indicating a helpful mode of organizing a large body of knowledge. Let us assume that a fortnight is to be spent on the military history of the Revolutionary War. The teacher decides to give the class a mold into which the specific events will naturally fall. The class listens as the teacher talks. Maps and chalk are used very freely, but, when the lesson draws to a close, the class sees clearly that the teacher built an outline for them that will hold in logical place the specific events to be learned in the coming weeks. The blackboard at the end of the lesson shows the following outline:

MILITARY PROGRESS OF THE WAR FOR INDEPENDENCE

1. The pre-independence fight: Lexington and Bunker Hill
2. The war in the North for New York and Philadelphia
3. The war in the South
4. The war in the West
5. Freedom

The development of the United States as a world power may be made the subject of the history work of a month. The teacher may decide to indicate an organization that will hold together the mass of material to be gathered in the six or eight lessons. Here, again, the teacher does most of the talking and evolves before the class, bit by bit, an outline somewhat like the following:

THE UNITED STATES BECOMES A WORLD POWER

1. The old policy: avoid entangling alliances
2. The development of large scale production in agriculture and industry
3. The need for world markets
4. The Spanish American War
5. The United States becomes an imperialistic nation. The Philippines, Porto Rico, and Hawaiian Islands
6. The campaign of 1900. Imperialism *v.* Anti-imperialism. The issues before the country; the decision of the people
7. Foreign Treaties after 1900
8. The World War and American participation
9. Wilson's part in the formulation of a plan for a league of nations
10. American participation in conferences of the powers of the world. The United States initiates world conferences
11. The debts which other nations owe the United States
12. Attitude of President Coolidge, Congress, and the American people toward the World Court and League of Nations

This plan may be reproduced on a large chart, or copies may be made by the pupils. It gives them a preview of what is coming and helps them keep details in their logical

place. Without such an outline, learning and teaching are made more difficult for pupil and teacher respectively.

How Shall the Lecture Be Given?—The directions for giving the talk on these occasions are set forth in detail in the introductory part of the following chapter. Our task here is limited to setting forth the circumstance when this type of recitation may be used most effectively.

Socialized Recitations through Problem and Project Teaching

Illustrations of Socialized Recitations.—A review of the topic, "European Contributions to America," becomes necessary at a given point in the development of the term's work of a class in history. The teacher decided not to employ a method of developing the topic by questions and answers because in such a procedure she, and not the children, would be planning the review; she would decide upon what was necessary; she would determine what was to be stressed until it occupied a central position and what might be touched on lightly and allowed to take its place in the penumbral regions. Clearly, she sought a method which would keep the class active and make each pupil take the initiative.

The teacher announced that the class would, in the course of the semester, be responsible for the program of one of the longer assemblies. The question naturally arose, "What shall we offer?" The suggestions were listed as rapidly as they were made, and their relative merits were discussed. Although some items of the program commended themselves more than others, the class agreed that so far nothing new had been suggested. Other classes presented recitations, songs, compositions, folk dances, and simple dramatizations of stories. "What can we do that is different?" was asked by many children. Since no one had an answer, the teacher volunteered a plan. She

explained that their assembly program should be both a means of entertaining the school and informing others of the activities of their class. Since they had concluded the subject, "European Contributions to Early America," they were ready for a review of it. Why not plan a pageant which could be shown in the assembly with profit to the onlookers and credit to the class? Here was a means of meeting both assembly and classroom needs.

The class agreed and set to work. By questions and suggestions the teacher initiated the problem, "How shall we plan the pageant?" After a whole period of animated discussion, the following procedure was agreed upon:

1. Name of the pageant
2. What facts shall the pageant portray?
3. How shall we portray these facts?
   (*a*) By scenes
   (*b*) By floats
   (*c*) By drawings and paintings of our own
   (*d*) By pictures that we can secure
4. Carrying out the plan
5. How meet the cost of the pageant?
6. The rehearsal

In anticipation of the protest of the teacher who must follow a fixed daily program that this takes time, we may point out that the periods set aside for oral composition were utilized. Instead of introducing an unrelated subject and demanding, under penalty of a low mark in composition, that the pupils "discuss it in this oral composition lesson," the class had a delightful exchange of opinions, talked freely as occasion demanded, and came to a definite conclusion, a plan of work. What more effective way of investing some of the time set aside for oral composition?

Every day some phase of the project was taken up and the pageant brought nearer to completion. One day the discussion centered around the title. Various suggestions

were made and their merits debated freely. The vote indicated that a preponderating majority favored "America in the Making."

The next stage in the project concerned itself with the facts of "America in the Making." The topic studied in preceding weeks was carefully reviewed. Some facts were set forth as of transcending importance, others were relegated to secondary places, and still others were cast aside as having little permanent significance. The place which a fact must be given in the pageant served as a standard for deciding the relative importance of historic data. At the end of three periods devoted to history the class had a tabular summary of the subject which indicated very clearly central tendencies and facts of transcending importance.

Now came lessons devoted to describing the three floats and the two scenes agreed upon as the absolute minimum. The pupils had definite tasks to accomplish in their manual training and drawing classes. Scenes and floats must be built and painted. Drawings must be made and remade. Pictures must be suitably mounted. Costumes must be sewn. English, French, Spanish, and Dutch folk songs must be sung in the appropriate scenes. A description of the pageant must be prepared so that mimeographed copies could be placed in the hands of pupils who were not as familiar as this class with the story of "America in the Making."

Oral and written composition, history, manual work, drawing, and music were combined in a single purposeful experience. In each lesson, a specific problem had to be solved: "What is the most suitable title?" "What facts are most important?" "What shall the Dutch float show?" "How can we secure the necessary things to make this float?" "What shall we say in the mimeographed descriptive statement of the pageant?" and so on, almost without

end. The class identified itself with the task as it never did in either of the recitations described in the introductory pages of this chapter.

Characteristics of Socialized Recitations. — Socialized teaching stimulates spontaneity so conducive to free and full self-expression. The pupil is impelled by the challenge of the topic rather than by the commands of the teacher to participate in the discussion. The teacher is the benevolent guide rather than the taskmaster. Questions are asked freely by the pupils of the teacher as well as of one another. The teacher is not the only person privileged to ask questions. Every criticism offered is usually directed, not to the class, but to the individual whose answer is under discussion. The pupil criticized makes a defensive or an explanatory reply. He is encouraged not to be submissive —but he is ready to be convinced and relinquishes his position as soon as his fact or conclusions are proved erroneous.

We find in this form of class teaching a method constantly used in everyday situations. Teachers in conference often hold differing views; they talk together, think together, recede a little, take up new ground, modify an old conclusion until a coöperative decision is reached. Socialized teaching aims to arouse coöperative effort to reach a helpful conclusion. It seeks to develop in the pupil self-reliance, an attitude towards experience so active that it borders on mental aggressiveness, a willing application to a task that confronts the group, and, most important of all, a readiness to think with others.

Plan of a Problem Recitation.—The illustration cited above shows that once a project is presented and a plan adopted for its successful completion, each succeeding recitation is confined to the solution of one of the problems that make up the entire project. Although a problem lesson is generally a socialized recitation, it must not be inferred

that it lacks either form or plan. To Dewey, a problem is solved when the mind takes five definite steps:

1. The conflict in experience; the challenge of the mind
2. The recognition of the specific problem to be solved
3. Weighing various modes of solution
4. Selecting the one solution or explanation
5. Verification of the conclusion reached

Let us take as the illustrative problem the growth of urban population and its possible significance for the near future. We present the simple fact that in 1790, 90 per cent of the population was rural and engaged in agriculture; in 1920 only 35 per cent was engaged in farming. An interesting problem at once presents itself: If 90 per cent of the population in 1790 had to engage in agriculture to feed the people, how can we subsist to-day with only 35 per cent of our people producing farm products? Here we have at once a challenge to the mind; a conflict is aroused in every individual who never thought of the possible limitations of our food supply. A definite problem is therefore recognized: Is mankind in danger of food shortage because of the shift in population? The first two steps are taken, and a mind set is given by a motivating situation, which serves both as aim for the lesson and a means of stirring the self-activity of the pupils.

Various ways of meeting the situation must now be formulated and discussed. To the question, how can 35 per cent of our population, engaged in farming, feed the whole population, the following answers were evolved by the pupils:

1. In the old days, farms were small and each farmer fed only his family.

2. We have more people to-day, hence, although only 35 per cent are engaged in agriculture, this means 35 millions, almost ten times as many people as there were in the thirteen colonies.

3. To-day we use machines. One machine can do the work of many men.
4. We import farm foods; hence we shall have enough food.
5. We eat less farm foods to-day.
6. We have railroads, hence large farms far away from the cities can produce enough food for us.

After discussion, answers (1) and (3) and (6) were selected as offering the trial explanation. The fallacy in (2) was pointed out. The statements in (4) and (5) were proved false by reference to statistical tables in the geography textbook. Thus steps (4) and (5) of the recitation were completed. The lesson was concluded by reading selected passages from the class text which told of the size of the modern large farms and the increased productivity due to the introduction of machinery.

Charters[1] regards events of history as mere solutions of social problems. Each historical incident is, therefore, a problem to be studied according to the following plan:

1. Old conditions
2. Defects or limitations in the old, giving rise to the new problem
3. The problem described or summed up
4. The ensuing events
5. The solution of the situation
6. The defects or limitations of the solution

Teaching the founding of one of the thirteen colonies according to this scheme gives us a lesson organized in the following way:

Step 1. Set forth religious persecution, interference with individual liberty, restrictions of trade, unjust laws, excessive taxation, etc., in Europe of the day
Step 2. A study of how these harassing conditions affected the lives of average honest and hardworking men
Step 3. The quest for relief; dissension, revolution, search for a haven of refuge

[1] W. W. Charters, *Teaching the Common Branches* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1913), pp. 257-258.

Step 4. The founding of the colony
Step 5. Later history of the colony
Step 6. Did the colonization of America solve the problem?

On closer analysis there seems to be little difference between the five steps suggested by Dewey and six by Charters. Steps 1 and 2 in the two plans perform the same function, they set the problem into a motivating background. Steps 3 and 4 of the second plan merely repeat the scope of Step 3 of the first, the class studied attempts to meet the problem. Similarly, Steps 5 and 6 of the second plan tend to verify the inferences drawn in earlier steps; this is clearly the function suggested by Dewey in the last step.

No two writers give the same analysis of the steps in solving a problem, but all carefully thought out plans of problem recitations show a marked similarity in their organization and sequence of procedure. Teachers may use either of the two plans set forth above and introduce as much variation as the changing nature of the topic makes necessary. The important consideration is to follow a carefully conceived plan and to avoid planless teaching.

Limitations of Socialized Teaching.—It is essential that we recognize certain fundamental limitations inherent in socialized teaching. We must see each of these clearly so that we may guard against an uncritical acceptance of this form of recitation.

Socialized teaching cannot be applied to all phases of history and social studies. Dates, names of places and people, terms of a treaty, the chronological succession of events—these are some of the things that require individual learning and drill to insure ready and reliable recall.

Second, an overindulgence in socialized teaching makes the whole procedure perfunctory. The discussions are in danger of becoming flat and the pupil's participation proceeds from a realization of what is expected of him rather

than from a desire to contribute towards the solution of a real situation.

Third, fundamental principles are often lost sight of in highly socialized recitations, and both teacher and class wander freely over the whole field of knowledge. To guard against this danger, it is well to write the aim or the introducing problem on the board. Keep it in full view of the whole class. Every irrelevant contribution should be judged in the light of the goal before the class and quickly rejected as contributing nothing to the solution of a specific situation.

A second practice that reduces wandering is to stop for frequent summaries. As the first phase of the lesson is completed, pupils are called upon to summarize it. This directs the mind to the next logical step. The completion of the second point is followed by a summary of the first two, thus setting minds again on the path leading to the objective to be attained.

Another corrective procedure is to interrupt the recitation with such a question as, "Are we getting the necessary facts?" The class stops to take stock of the specific information in its possession. This will prevent the occurrence of such incidents as the following. A group of children had just completed a highly socialized recitation on France. When questioned, many who had participated in the discussion could not indicate the location of France on an outline map of Europe, did not know other countries in Europe in about the same latitude, and could not tell which way a person in New York or London or Rome would have to turn to face France. The question "Are we getting the necessary facts?" would have led to a realization that the group had not yet learned the location of France.

These remedial devices to guard against wandering from the subject and to stress fundamental facts cannot be carried out if a pupil is always in charge of the class. Teach-

ing, we agree, is a professional labor that requires maturity of mind and technical training. We must have compelling reason for replacing the teacher by a pupil.

A fourth limitation of socialized teaching is the difficulty experienced in formulating an adequate number of problems and projects that will serve as genuine motivation. At best, the school is a man-made institution, and the curriculum is a short cut across racial experience. Rousseau, the exponent of naturalism, was fundamentally honest, if not practical. To him education was a process of living and the curriculum merely the sum of all the trials and enjoyments of life. Learning by experience is the only natural method of becoming educated. But the moment life is regulated and experiences are predetermined for the child, education becomes an artificial process. Purely natural education involves waste, extravagant waste of time and energy.

Our concern as skillful teachers is to approximate as closely as possible the experiences of life and thus make preparation for living economical and effective. When this cannot be done, necessary skills and knowledge should be given without going too far afield to create problems and projects far removed from the life the pupil knows. Show the child the need he will have for the experience to be taught and let him proceed to learn it. Do not waste time inventing situations that are not genuine. The child feels the falsity of the spurious situation. A problem is not achieved by merely labeling a combination of circumstances a "project."

What is to be gained by calling the following situations, problems and projects? They are all taken from the writings of recognized sponsors of socialized teaching and project curricula.

Immigration Problem: Learn the countries from which our immigrants come. Locate them accurately and give the boundaries.

Does the child really care for this knowledge? Have we ever convinced pupils that a possible future need for this kind of information is a satisfactory reason for learning it all these years ahead of time? We are convinced that children should be able to locate the important countries of the world. If we cannot evolve a genuine problem, why serve the old wine in a new bottle? Does it really become more palatable? Why not explain the need of this information and then plan an effective drill on this phase of locational geography? Are the following projects and problems more genuine than the one we just cited?

Indian Project: Where did the Indians obtain the colors for their designs?

Project of Hunting Life: How to make a rabbit trap and a prairie chicken trap.

Project for Colonial Life: Finding pictures of houses, furniture, occupations, transportation to show life in colonial times.

Military Project: To make a map showing the details of an important campaign.

Tariff Project: To make a list of the important tariff struggles in the history of the United States.

What if certain experiences are worth teaching but cannot be motivated genuinely because of the immaturity of the children? Explain why in the judgment of teachers and parents this information is worth knowing. Then expect children to make an honest effort to learn the facts. But calling these situations problems or projects is essentially dishonest.

Final Estimate of Socialized Teaching.—Every effort must be made to retain the social motives that make for self-expression in the socialized recitations. We must realize that socialized teaching is often not a fixed type of teaching but rather a quality of teaching or an attitude towards learning which can be introduced into part or into the whole of any of the other recognized forms of recitation.

Review and Drill Recitations

Review and Drill Differentiated.—Reviews were discussed at length in Chapter IX. Through a number of illustrations it was shown that a review gives a new view and a new organization of old knowledge. All reviews give deeper insight and stress fundamentals to the neglect of secondary details. In history, this review recitation can be planned in many ways. The reader is therefore referred to the full treatment of reviews as means of emphasizing the thought aspect of history.

The drill is the lesson of repetition of basic facts for the purpose of reducing them to the plane of habit. Drill makes a memory appeal, places all details on the same level of importance, and cannot be maintained beyond a six- or eight-minute period without serious diminution of attention.

Characteristics of Effective Drills.—Since history and the other social studies present specific facts that must be recalled at will, the drill occupies an important place in the teaching of these subjects. Let us therefore examine the characteristics of an effective drill lesson.

1. *Drill is motivated.* At the end of a week, list the dates, names, places, and significant facts that must be habituated. Show the child the importance of being able to recall them instantaneously and then elicit that the required mastery can be attained at one price, conscientious drill. This motivation should be given only occasionally, perhaps not more than once a month.

2. *Drill is given in material well understood.* Do not require drill on content that is to be explained. The facts submitted to a rigorous drill must be understood thoroughly. The more accurate the comprehension the greater is the learning process facilitated.

3. *The repetitions require regularity, frequency, and sustained attention.* Plan to give the first three minutes of

each history lesson to a flash card drill on the minimum essential facts. Regularity and frequency are thus attained.

The telling factor in successful drill is not the number of repetitions, but the intensity of attention that is maintained. Repeat facts an endless number of times while the mind is permitted to wander and note how little is retained. Focalize attention and repeat a similar list of facts only a very limited number of times and note how readily we hold on to them.

To retain focused attention, the drill lesson must be short, rarely over five or six minutes, and the questions must be asked quickly and in varying forms. Questions should be written on flash cards so that they need not always be asked orally. Change the wording of the questions so that the mind does not tire of the fixed formula "What happened in . . . ?" or "Who was . . . ?" Above all, make each pupil feel individually responsible at every moment throughout the drill lesson. To call on children in regular sitting order or to indulge in concert drill invites attention to wander and reduces very materially the worth of the drill.

4. *Drill must be followed by self checks.* Children must be shown how to check their mastery of details. They must learn that without this checking process their study is still incomplete.

The Study Recitation

Special Need for This Type of Recitation.—Time and energy of the teacher are generally invested in disciplining and in teaching new facts. The persistent aim seems to be to add to the knowledge content of the pupil's mind. But growth in power is decidedly more important than acquisition of mere information. What our school graduates need is power to use a book and to obtain, through their own de-

vices, facts from the printed page. Each of the major subjects in the curriculum should therefore be regarded not only as a vehicle for conveying a certain amount of necessary data, but also as an instrument by which the technique of study can be taught. We must deliberately set aside occasional periods in which we teach not history, but how to study history. Begin such a lesson by saying to the pupils "Here is an important topic in history; how would you learn the necessary facts if you had no teacher?" The whole time is devoted not to helping children master the necessary historical facts but rather to developing in them a set of study habits which will give them ability to use books as an important source of knowledge.

Two Kinds of Study Lessons.—A study lesson may take one of two forms:

1. The study of selected and definite facts, the self-drill,
2. The study of a text in order to extract necessary facts, the lesson of selection and interpretation.

The Study of Selected Facts.—In the former lesson, the pupil must learn a set of events in chronological order, a few significant dates, names of people and places, or the names of the outstanding mechanical inventions in a given era. The procedure here is not unlike that prescribed for the drill lesson in our preceding topic. We must teach the pupil to ask himself:

1. Do I understand what I am to memorize?
2. Have I planned to study this list at least twice, spending only five minutes in each drill?
3. Will I keep my mind intent on what I must acquire and shut out all other ideas?
4. Do I know how to check myself to find out whether I have mastered the facts?

If drills are properly given in class and their technique is imparted to children by such questions as these, pupils will soon learn that the best way to be rid of a task is to

understand it, and then give one's whole self to it; but to dawdle over it gives it power to keep one longer from more pleasant occupations.

The Procedure in the Study Lesson of Selection and Interpretation.—In this second type of study lesson a set text is assigned. Obviously necessary facts must be disengaged from the rest of the context and then properly interpreted and organized. Here is a lesson that challenges professional patience and pedagogic skill.

After the lesson is properly assigned, the teacher asks the pupils to describe their first step. As a rule, most of them convey in one way or another that the text must be read "to see if we understand it." "What if you don't?" the teacher persists and usually obtains the answer, "We would look up new words in the dictionary; we would ask an older person to help us."

Now that meaning is assured, we ask pupils for their next step. They usually tell us that they would then try "to learn the history." Further questioning reveals that, to them, learn means to memorize. The class must then be led by one device and another to perceive that not all that is given on a page is worth remembering; that there is a relativity of importance in a list of facts; that some important facts one already knows; and that only the remaining important facts should be learned.

Children must be given practice in distinguishing the important from the unimportant. Various devices are available. A paragraph may be analyzed and the thought in each of the sentences evaluated. Let us take the following paragraph from a very good school text on American history.

The paper money issued by the Confederacy had, of course, become worthless. Even before the final disasters, it took almost a cartload of this money, it is said, to buy a basketful of provisions. After Lee's surrender it became clear that the notes

and bonds of the Confederacy could never be redeemed in coin, for there would be no Confederacy to redeem them. All the savings that self-sacrificing men and women had put into Confederate securities were lost forever. Furthermore, credit was gone. To replace the capital they had lost, business men and farmers needed to borrow money; but to borrow when they were poverty-stricken was difficult.

The exercise began by asking whether the first sentence contains an important item. The class was of one mind. The idea was worth keeping. Is the idea in the second sentence worth learning? Here the class was divided, most favored the affirmative, attracted undoubtedly by the picture of a cartload of money for a basket of provisions. A few of the abler pupils said, "The sentence is good but there is nothing new in it," or "Of course, if the money was worthless, tons of it were needed for a loaf of bread." The critical minority convinced the majority to change its judgment and the class declared that the second sentence "contained an idea that need not be learned."

In a socialized discussion the class voted "to study the idea in the third sentence but not the one in the fourth." The reason for the discrimination they gave clearly enough; if the paper money could not be redeemed, then of course all savings were lost. In the analysis of the remainder of the paragraph, the sixth and the seventh ideas were retained but were combined into one. The result of the analysis was summed up on the board as follows:

Ideas to Learn in a Paragraph of Six Sentences

1. Confederate money became worthless.
2. People saw that after Lee's surrender money would never be redeemed.
3. Farmers and business men could not even borrow money for they had no credit.

Another device for helping children to select important ideas is to formulate questions on the assigned text. Each

question points naturally to a contributing thought. It is well to introduce an occasional question that encourages reflection and evaluation of the statements in the text. This paragraph from a school text will illustrate this procedure:

Strikes. After a war there is always social and political unrest, and our country had its share of this following the World War. In 1919 there were more than 3,200 strikes. Two of these were of more than usual importance—the steel strike and the great coal strike. The steel strike which involved over 200,000 men grew out of questions of wages, hours, and working conditions. It was entered upon against the orders of union officials. . . . The workers gradually returned to their jobs, without any general settlement.

A chart prepared before the lesson was hung before the class. It directed:

Read the paragraph on Strikes on page 526. Answer these questions briefly:

1. What kind of disturbances follow a war?
2. What facts show that these disturbances occurred in the U. S. after the World War?
3. What were the most important of these disturbances?
4. What was the general outcome of most strikes?
5. What reasons can you give to account for these disturbances?

The first four questions are clearly factual and are based directly on the text; the last calls for personal reaction. Such questions form a good introductory device when the study process is new to children. It should be discontinued as soon as the pupils give evidence that they can, in an elementary way, select the salient ideas of a paragraph, because these questions do for them precisely what they must do for themselves.

Another introductory means of giving children practice in distinguishing chaff from wheat is to present a skeleton of the important ideas in a paragraph and then to ask them to justify the teacher's selection and exclusion. Thus for

the above paragraph, the outline would take the following form:

STRIKES

1. Social and business disturbance after wars.
2. Social and business disturbances in the United States after the World War. The number of strikes.
3. The two most important strikes: steel; coal.

Again, we cannot urge too strongly that the use of this suggestion be limited to the transitional stage when children are passing from *learning by being taught* to *learning by studying*. To continue this device beyond the initial weeks weakens pupils mentally by denying them the opportunity to make their own judgments.

Our immediate inquiry concerns itself with the procedure in the study lesson, which requires at every turn selection and interpretation of data. We digressed long enough to indicate specific ways of training young people to select what is important. We must now resume our original purpose. Children should be taught that in a study lesson, other than the drill type, they must take at least four steps:

1. A reading for comprehension
2. A second reading for the selection of the necessary data
3. A study of the selected facts
4. An organization of the facts into an outline as the study progresses from paragraph to paragraph or from subtopic to subtopic

A twofold objection may be raised to the plan here suggested. First, it may be argued that adults do not go through these four steps or similar ones in their studying. Upon closer analysis this objection does not hold, because, with increasing experience, the mind learns to combine these steps until it can accomplish the first three in one reading. But young children must be taken through a slow

routine designed to insure in the early years the development of correct procedure.

The second objection is a more valid one. There is no allowance made for critical reaction by the student. This is undoubtedly true and the procedure is weak to this extent. In explanation, it must be urged that even junior high school pupils are too immature to attempt an intelligent evaluation of the text. Let them concentrate all mind on the proper selection and organization of facts and they will attain a study goal as high as can reasonably be expected of them.

Various Ways in Which a Text May Be Studied.—As in methods of teaching, so in methods of study, there is no one fixed procedure. A text may, therefore, be studied by one of the plans here suggested or by a modification of any of them. In the course of a semester as many of the following methods of study should be introduced as circumstances permit:

1. Teacher and class study the text together as is described in the preceding pages.
2. Pupils study a text by answering questions based on it.
3. A lesson is assigned by a logical arrangement of topic and subtopics. Children are asked to read what is said about each subtopic until they can tell something worth while about it.
4. Children are asked to read the text carefully and make an outline of it.
5. A text is assigned for interpretative reading. The children must formulate a set number of questions, say six, which will test whether their classmates have mastered the essentials.
6. A problem is posited before the class. The class is invited to search for a solution in the text.

Illustrations:

(*a*) Study the exposition of the Douglas Bill of 1854 and find out why the Missouri Compromise had to be set aside.

(*b*) The author of an American history says, "A less vigorous personality than Roosevelt would not have built the Panama Canal when he did." Study the paragraphs on the Panama Canal and find three traits of character of Roosevelt that tend to justify this author's conviction.

(*c*) In 1860, the South owned almost 4,000,000 slaves valued at about two billion dollars. Slave owners, of course, lost all their slaves as a result of the war. Yet it is repeatedly said that the abolition of slavery was a benefit to the South. Read . . . and find out as many arguments as you can to support or reject this statement.

(*d*) In the lesson on the "Winning of the West" your teacher introduced facts that your textbook does not. Your book tells you what your teacher omitted. Study the section dealing with the winning of the West and then make two lists: one, of the facts your teacher gave but that your book does not; a second, of the facts your book gives but that your teacher omitted. What reasons do you think led your teacher to add certain facts and to omit others?

7. Studying a text in preparation for an informal debate or a symposium.

Illustration: Study the introductory section of the chapter "The United States Becomes a World Power" and select either the affirmative or the negative side of the question: Were we justified in imposing our rule on the Philippine Islands? or, The history of the last twenty-five years has shown that the Anti-Imperialists of 1900 were fully justified in their position.

These are graded methods of study, the last two applicable in high school and college classes, the first three or four in grades as low as the fifth. The character of the pupils, their previous training in the technique of study, and their language possessions will determine which of these procedures to follow.

The Recitation Based on Home Study

In the upper grades of the junior high school it is well to make occasional assignments for home study, and in the period immediately following to hold a recitation on the designated text. This is a type of teaching that succeeds only with pupils who have learned how to study and who have developed a sense of responsibility and self-control. Introducing this form of recitation prematurely may develop an aversion for both the subject and the book.

How to Make the Assignment.—Lessons properly assigned challenge the mind or invite attention. An arbitrary direction like, "Read pages 50 to 54," or "Draw a map showing . . . ," or "Make a table summing up . . . ," makes teaching of the next lesson more difficult because the children have not gleaned from the assignment what is expected of them.

A lesson must be so assigned that it is definite and intimately related to a need or a problem that has arisen in the course of class work. The different methods of assignment are set forth with illustrations in the preceding topic, specifically, in the paragraphs numbered 2, 3, 4, 6, and 7.

The Conduct of the Recitation Based on Home Study.—The recitation must not be conducted as a quiz. The questions asked and the discussions called for must be designed to settle these doubts in the teacher's mind:

1. Have the pupils made an honest effort to carry out the assignment?
2. Do the pupils know how to study?
3. Is the book well adjusted to these pupils?
4. Have the pupils a definite framework of facts that will serve as an adequate basis for conclusions or attitudes?
5. Is the organization suggested by the book in its development of the topic satisfactory?

6. Is the pupils' understanding of the facts sufficient? What misconception must be corrected and which ideas must be enriched and sharpened?

The work may be written or oral or both. A few controlling ideas or underlying tendencies should be made to stand out, either through the number of the questions focused on them, or by the explanation which the teacher adds to the text.

Problems for Study and Discussion

1. Prove the following statements by reference to actual lessons in history or civics:

> "The method-whole is a type of recitation in which the teacher takes the initiative. . . . In the method-whole the pupil is a mere follower. He thinks the teacher's thoughts and accepts the teacher's convictions."
>
> "The method-whole provides a definite procedure for arousing pupil-activity which is not unlike learning by experience."

2. The lecture method in history is recommended when the following ends must be achieved:

(*a*) to establish a particular point of view
(*b*) to evoke enthusiasm, wholehearted sanction, or forceful condemnation
(*c*) to develop a plan of organization preparatory to the study of an important topic or period

Give at least two specific illustrations of each of these purposes that justify the use of the lecture method.

3. List the values of socialized teaching of history and civics and arrange them under the following heads (*a*) psychological; (*b*) social; (*c*) subject matter.

4. By referring to specific lessons that follow various types of recitations, prove the truth of the following statement:

> "All forms of recitation may be socialized. Socialized teaching does not refer to a specific form of recitation."

5. Can every kind of information be taught through a socialized recitation? Refer to different kinds of historic knowledge (for example, biographical, military, economic policies, dates, etc.) in developing your answer.

6. What qualities of a project or a problem determine its genuineness? Which of the following projects are spurious? Why?

(*a*) *Pictorial Project:* to collect pictures showing how the Erie Canal was built
(*b*) *Manual Project:* to make a canal lock; to make a colonial lantern
(*c*) *Research Projects:* (1) to find pictures showing costumes and wearing apparel in colonial times in preparation for a play to be produced in the assembly
(2) to discover the distinctive military ability of General Washington
(3) to ascertain why French is spoken in so many parts of Canada
(4) to gather all the facts which led us to side against Germany in the World War
(*d*) *General Projects:* (1) to discover whether Wilson could really have kept us out of the war
(2) to trace the territorial growth of the United States
(3) to learn whether we can say with full justice, "The United States never waged a war for new lands"

7. Plan a drill lesson and a review lesson on each of the following topics:

(*a*) The coming of the Renaissance
(*b*) Why America was colonized
(*c*) The gains of each of the nations that fought on the winning side of the World War
(*d*) States' rights
(*e*) Roosevelt and conservation
(*f*) The development of nationality in 1789–1812
(*g*) The industrialization of the South after the Civil War

8. List devices for developing in children the power

(*a*) to select facts worthy of study
(*b*) to organize facts that are selected for study

9. Examine the various methods suggested for studying text

matter in history and civics. What other modes can you suggest (for example, requiring children to indicate on a suitable map all the military facts discussed in a given section)? Give for each method set forth in the text and for each added method set forth by you an appropriate illustration from world history.

10. Criticize the following assignments and give for those you disapprove a form of assignment you regard as distinctly superior:

(*a*) Read about the settlement of Virginia for to-morrow.
(*b*) Find out what you can of the Puritans.
(*c*) Read the first part of the section entitled "The Founding of Pennsylvania" and give a list of reasons why Penn's colony was sure to suffer less than others from Indian hostility.
(*d*) Read pages 72 to 76.
(*e*) Read pages 72 to 76 and make an outline of the material there presented.
(*f*) Read pages 72 to 76 and prepare a test paper of ten questions designed to test your classmates' knowledge of important facts.
(*g*) Read pages 72 to 76 and find the reasons to justify the following statement:

> The settlement of Pennsylvania shows that this colony like the others was settled by people who were keenly discontented with conditions in Europe.

11. What argument may be advanced for regular assignment of lessons in history for home study, say, twice each week? What reasons do others give who oppose home study by pupils not yet in secondary schools?

CHAPTER XV

METHODS AND DEVICES IN THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

Oral Teaching of History

In the first four years the teaching of history is almost exclusively oral. Although the use of this form of presentation is gradually diminished in the fifth and sixth years, oral teaching persists through the early years of the junior high school.

In those grades where history aims to present the most vital facts and to stimulate the mind to a vivid imagery of them, oral teaching is absolutely necessary. Too frequently one finds history lessons in which children open their books to an assigned topic, and then take turns in reading sections aloud. The teacher questions and explains. At times the interest is focused on oral reading; at other times, on the meaning of new words and expressions. In such a presentation an historic interest is not the center of consciousness.

In the first six grades history should frequently be taught through vivid narration by the teacher. All the skill that is brought to bear on telling a story should be used here. The teacher should know the story well; should feel the situation; should tell it enthusiastically and sincerely. Only thus can the imaginations of pupils be stirred to create pictures that are vibrant with life.

How to Make Oral Teaching More Effective

Although oral teaching, skillfully performed, brings immediate response, the permanent results may not be signifi-

cant. To utilize the mental activity aroused by animated oral teaching, a few supplementary devices are necessary. Three of these we now consider.

1. *Outlines of Guidance and Summary.*—Before the story is begun, the teacher should put on the board an outline which will help the children to follow the narrative. Most young people are untrained listeners. They cannot follow the development of a chain of ideas nor can they control attention sufficiently to inhibit mind wandering. An outline skillfully planned is of immeasurable service to an immature audience.

An *outline of guidance* is therefore formulated by the teacher and is presented at the very opening of the lesson. It contains main headings and a few key words under each. To those who do not know the story that the teacher is about to tell, this outline conveys almost nothing. Here is a copy of an outline of guidance that was prepared with dark crayon on a large sheet of light yellow wrapping paper and hung before the class at the opening of the teacher's story.

NATHAN HALE

Nathan Hale the Boy:
Parents ..... Schooling ..... Kind of boy .....
Nathan Hale the School Teacher:
Where ..... When ..... Service to his people .....
Nathan Hale an Officer in the War:
Enlistment ..... Special service ..... His special qualifications ..... The call ..... What he did .....
Capture ..... Trial ..... Verdict .....
Why Is Nathan Hale Remembered?
His conduct as teacher and officer ..... His last words .....
What to See and Read:
Pictures ..... Statues ..... Books, their titles and authors .....

In the course of the narration the teacher points to the successive headings and subtopics but does not stop to make

any explanation. Pupils whose minds have wandered can thus return readily to the appropriate topic, and untrained listeners find that the task of following the story is greatly facilitated.

The *outline of summary,* on the contrary, is evolved by the pupils under the supervision of the teacher at the end of the lesson. The object of such an outline is to sum up what has been gathered, to organize data already acquired, and to collect definite and essential facts. To be sure, the outline of guidance may, at the end of the lesson, be elaborated by the class into an outline of summary. The following is an outline of summary developed by the pupils under the direction of the teacher.

CAUSES OF THE CIVIL WAR

1. The Deep-Seated Single Cause:
   The northern opposition to slavery
2. Contributing Causes:
   (*a*) The conflicting interests of the industrial North and the agricultural South
   (*b*) The insistence by the South that a state has the right to secede from the Union. States' Rights *v.* Federal Power
3. Immediate Causes:
   Secession and the capture of Fort Sumter, 1861

The outline of summary may be used in various ways. Pupils may be asked to plan a two-minute talk on each topic; they may be required to elaborate the outline into an essay; or they may be asked to formulate questions on the various topics to test their classmates. Another use is to assign appropriate text and ask pupils to place each important fact in its proper place in the outline.

2. *The Teacher's Narration Replete with Detail.*—In order to give verisimilitude to the story, it is well to tell it with as rich a background of detail as possible. Surely, it is not our intention to require the memorization of these

details. They are included in the interests of vivid reality. A bold outline or story sketched in merely with essentials may arouse in the minds of young pupils a picture that is not even a remote counterpart of the canvas we are painting.

Let us contrast two descriptions of the Battle of Bunker Hill. The first is taken from a school textbook that gives the topic ampler treatment than most of its competitors. What picture is aroused in the pupils' minds by this brief and accurate statement of the event?

By the end of spring, in 1775, General Gage had 10,000 troops in Boston, where he found himself besieged by the Colonial militia. The city was on a neck of land, to the north and south of which were heights that commanded Boston. Breed's Hill and Bunker Hill were on the north, and Dorchester Heights were on the south. During the night of June 16th, Colonel William Prescott with some fifteen hundred Americans fortified Breed's Hill, though the battle that followed took its name from Bunker Hill. On the next day General Gage sent 3,000 British regulars to drive the Americans from their intrenchments. Twice the regulars charged in the face of a terrific musketry fire and twice the Americans threw them back with heavy losses. With their stock of powder exhausted, the defenders met a third charge by clubbing their muskets and fighting hand to hand; but at length, they had to give way. The British took the Hill, but they paid with a thousand men for a second lesson on the willingness of the Americans to fight.

This description of the Battle of Bunker Hill is all that we can reasonably ask of a school text that covers the whole field of American history. As a textbook statement there is much to commend it. But the narration by the teacher must be richer in details, more vivid in color, and more elaborate in background. In contrast, examine the following statement of the Battle of Bunker Hill, as presented by a committee of school people:[1]

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1 Report on History Textbooks used in the Public Schools of the

American History has no more dramatic event than the first set battle of the Revolution. Nothing shows more concretely the intensity of the feeling against British aggression. Nowhere has the spirit of liberty blazed forth more fiercely or gloriously. This was the acid test of the Colonial troops, and it is also one of the best topics for determining to what extent a writer of history has succeeded in making his presentation inspiring and effective. The author who fails to bring out the emotional appeal in describing this battle has little reason to write history for American schools.

Soon after the fight at Lexington and Concord an American army of 16,000 men surrounded Boston and constructed fortifications to shut in the British army under General Gage.

Boston at that time occupied a peninsula almost surrounded by hills on the mainland and on the Charlestown peninsula, a mile north of Boston, with two heights, Bunker's Hill and Breed's Hill, overlooking the town of Charlestown at their base, and all Boston on the opposite peninsula.

Both British and American forces planned to fortify this Charlestown peninsula, but the Americans learned that the British expected to begin on the 18th of June, so they made hurried preparations to seize the heights on the night of the 16th.

At six o'clock Friday evening, June 16th, about 1,200 New England men, under the command of Colonel William Prescott, paraded on Cambridge Common and after an impressive prayer by President Langdon of Harvard College, began their portentous march to Charlestown.

Only a limited amount of ammunition and provisions was supplied, as it was expected that the first part, after working all night on the redoubt, would be relieved the next morning by fresh troops.

When the troops reached Charlestown, part of them were posted as guards to keep watch on the British warships anchored nearby around the peninsula, and the sentinels patrolling the opposite Boston shore. The rest worked rapidly all night in digging out a redoubt and throwing up breastworks of earth.

Shortly before sunrise the American fortifications were discovered by sailors on board the British men-of-war, and soon a

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City of New York (Board of Education of New York, 1922), pp. 61–66.

terrific cannonading roused all Boston from sleep to see the strange, terrible, but magnificent spectacle.

During the entire morning an incessant bombardment of the redoubt was continued from the men-of-war, several floating batteries, and the fort on Copp's Hill in Boston. British soldiers who had fought on European battlefields testified that the cannonading was the heaviest they had ever witnessed. Lieutenant Samuel Webb, who was in the redoubt, wrote to his brother the next day: "Cannon and musket balls were flying about our ears like hail, and a hotter fire you can have no idea of . . . bombs, chain-shot, ring-shot and double-headed shot, flew thick as hailstones, but, thank Heaven, few of our men suffered by them; but when we mounted the summit, good God, how the balls flew. I freely acknowledge I never had such a tremor come over me before. . . . We fought against eight or ten capital ships' fire, the fire from Copp's Hill in Boston, of 24-pounders, and the regulars' fieldpieces, together with shells; when on our side nothing but small arms were fired, except four guns fired by General Putnam after the gunners quitted the fieldpieces."

General Howe probably hoped that this terrific bombardment would drive the "peasants" as he contemptuously called them, from the heights without his risking any of his troops. He was greatly mistaken. Colonel Prescott walked coolly back and forth on top of the parapet, watched by General Gage through a field-glass. "Who is the commander?" asked Gage of a colonist standing near him. On being informed that it was Colonel Prescott, he asked, "Will he fight?" "Yes," was the reply, "he is an old soldier, and will fight as long as a drop of blood remains in his veins." "Then the works must be taken by assault," said Gage, and gave orders immediately for troops to be sent to storm the redoubt.

Meanwhile the patriots had completed their fortifications, and were anxiously awaiting the arrival of the promised reinforcements and refreshments. Their barrels of drinking water had been shattered by the bombardment, their food supply was exhausted, and most of the men were worn out by watching and working all night, and standing fire all morning, under a boiling hot June sun, crowded together in a dry, dusty redoubt, with no shelter or rest from duty.

Now came the real crisis in the American ranks. The former cannonading continued with increased violence, and fieldpieces were placed so as to bring a raking fire across the redoubt.

At the same time the advancing columns opened a hot musketry fire along the whole front, with the regularity of troops on parade. They had been assured that the "rebels" would break and run before them, and they came on with unbounded confidence in their superiority.

Meanwhile the American officers were quietly encouraging their weary men for the supreme test, while the fate of American democracy trembled in the balance. Had the patriots failed to stand their ground manfully at this crisis, the tradition of British military supremacy would have been confirmed, and the recent confidence in the colonial military power would have been nipped in the bud. Despite the continuous strain which they had undergone for nearly twelve hours without cessation, no one broke down or faltered. Only the low words of caution were heard as the British came steadily on. "Don't waste a shot," the officers said. "Fire low"; "Aim at their waistbands"; "Wait till you see the whites of their eyes"; "Aim at the handsome coats"; "Pick off the Commanders." "They will never reach our breastworks," said Prescott, "if you will only follow my directions."

Finally, when the red lines were less than fifty yards away, the order was given to fire. The whole front of the British line fell, like grass before a mower. For a moment they faltered, then fled in confusion down the hill and back to the landing place. The Americans raised an exulting shout of victory, and could hardly be prevented from leaving their fortifications to pursue the retreating enemy.

Again the red columns came steadily up the hill, while a terrific cross-fire from their field-pieces raked the whole American position. Again the cool marksmen behind the fortifications picked out their targets with deadly certainty, waited until the enemy were almost upon them, and then discharged such a hurricane of fire that human endurance could not withstand it. After a short, stubborn resistance, the whole British line gave way again and retreated in greater disorder than before, some even taking refuge in the boats.

Matters were now in a serious condition within the fortification. The only powder left was what had been taken from a few artillery cartridges and the soldiers were making bullets by cutting pieces from lead pipes taken from an old pipe organ in Cambridge. Not one man in ten had a bayonet, and many of the garrison had been on duty continuously for almost twenty-four hours. Prudence would have compelled a retreat, had any

but the most invincible spirits held this redoubt. Resolved to sell the hill as dearly as possible, the Americans in the fort gathered stones and clubs to use when their ammunition was gone, and stubbornly awaited the charge of the enemy.

When the British lines approached the redoubt the third time, they were allowed to come within twenty yards before a shot was fired. Although the volley that came then staggered them, they quickly rallied and charged fiercely over the fortifications, where the defenders, whose last round had been fired, fought like demons, with clubbed muskets, stones, knives, fists, and even guns wrested from the invaders. When further resistance became absolutely hopeless, Prescott ordered a retreat, and slowly fell back, facing the enemy and parrying bayonet thrusts with his sword as he fought his way out of the dust clouded fort with the last of his men. The forces guarding the rail fence gallantly covered the retreat of their comrades, and delayed the enemy until the main body of the Americans were safely past Bunker Hill. Here the cannon of the enemy did terrible execution, as the colonists crossed the brow of the hill and Charlestown Neck, the greater part of the day's losses being suffered here.

Nominally, Bunker Hill was a defeat for the colonists, as they lost the position, and over four hundred men. The British, however, lost not only a thousand men, but what was far more significant, the prestige which had previously been accorded trained troops in comparison with colonial militia. Even in England, the true significance of the battle was soon seen. Governor Johnstone, speaking in the House of Commons, October 30, 1775, said:

> To a mind that loves to contemplate the glorious spirit of freedom, no spectacle can be more affecting than the action at Bunker Hill. To see an irregular peasantry, commanded by a physician, inferior in number, opposed by every circumstance of cannon and bombs that could terrify timid minds, calmly await the attack of the gallant Howe, leading on the best troops in the world, with an excellent train of artillery, and twice repulsing those very troops, who had often chased the chosen battalions of France, and at last retiring for want of ammunition, but in so respectable a manner that they were not even pursued—who can reflect on such scenes, and not adore the constitution of government which could breed such men!

When news of the battle reached General Washington, he in-

quired anxiously whether the New England militia had stood the fire of the regulars. When told how coolly and effectively they had held their ground, he exclaimed, "The liberties of the country are safe!" The greatest result, however, of the Battle of Bunker Hill was that it convinced Washington, Franklin, and many other American leaders, that the colonists would be justified in asserting, and competent to maintain, their independence of Great Britain.

The English historian Lecky, who had no reason for magnifying the accomplishments of the Americans, says of this battle:

> The battle of Breed's, or, as it is commonly called, of Bunker Hill, though extremely bloody in proportion to the number of men engaged, can hardly be said to present any very remarkable military character, and in a great European war it would have been almost unnoticed. Few battles, however, have had more important consequences. It roused at once the fierce instinct of combat in America, weakened seriously the only British army in New England, and dispelled forever the almost superstitious belief in the impossibility of encountering regular troops with hastily levied volunteers.

The teacher who knows the story and can enrich it by anecdote and detail feeds the active and eager imaginations of the children. They, in their turn, paint a picture that has life and spirit and that impresses itself indelibly upon their plastic minds.

3. *The Class Text to Supplement Oral Teaching.*—It is wise to minimize note-taking as much as possible during oral teaching. School pupils possess too few of the necessary language habits to enable them to make notes while they follow the development of a topic. In the upper grades of the junior high school teachers may find it profitable to teach children how to take notes. Not until the senior high school grades are we justified in expecting pupils to take helpful notes without specific directions from the teacher.

After the oral lesson, the class textbook should be used. It may be well to compare the author's treatment with the teacher's development. The pupil may be asked to outline

the presentation found in the book or to review the story told by the teacher by answering the study questions suggested by the author. The book thus becomes a follow-up device that provides for helpful pupil reactions to the lesson.

The Textbook in History Teaching

Variety of Uses. — A good textbook has innumerable values for class teaching. Chief among these we may mention:

1. The book supplies a framework on which the important facts may be hung. It presents the high points of an elaborately developed lesson.

2. The book makes for definiteness and fixes responsibility. Without a good text incoherence may result; pupils may fix on the little eddies and overlook the main currents in the stream of events.

3. The book is useful in those lessons in which the controlling aim is to teach children how to study history rather than to teach them history itself. This type of lesson was outlined in detail in the preceding chapter.[2]

4. The book may be used to gather facts and verify references in a problem recitation. Here again, the reader is referred to the earlier exposition of this form of teaching for fuller statement and illustrations of it.[3]

5. The book aids materially by the quality of its illustrations, maps, and diagrams. Where these illustrative aids are well chosen, the teacher can make effective visual appeal at crucial points in the lesson.

Types of Textbooks.—Various kinds of textbooks are now available. Each has its value and its limitations. We shall merely sum these up in tabular form.

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2 See pp. 208–215.

3 See pp. 82–89.

TYPES OF TEXTBOOKS

Type of Book	Characteristics	Uses	Limitations
1. The Outline Type.....	(*a*) Much is presented in tabular form. (*b*) It gives impression of summarizing a fuller treatment.	(*a*) It is very helpful in preparation for a test. (*b*) Unifies the work of a large part of a semester. (*c*) It gives a preview of a large and difficult field about to be introduced.	(*a*) It robs history of body and soul if used as a teaching basis. (*b*) If used too frequently, it leads to memorization of facts and neglects the thought aspect of history.
2. The Condensed Text.....	This gives a running narrative of the ampler content developed in class.	As given under points (*a*) and (*b*) above.	(*a*) The most effective summaries or condensations of class work are those made by the pupils under the teachers' guidance. (*b*) Pupils do not have enough facts to give meaning to the generalities that are inevitable in such a text.
3. The Fuller Text That Is Designed to Teach History Relying but Little on the Contribution by the Teacher.....	The book is large and usually well written. It has a full complement of illustrative aids, study questions and formal reviews.	(*a*) Where instruction is given in groups, this type of book is very serviceable for seat work. (*b*) It is an invaluable instrument for teaching children how to study. The full text is read, understood, and subjected to analysis for selection of important data.	The limitations are few and incidental. The completeness of the book may prompt certain teachers to regard the reading of the book with the pupils as teaching history. This kind of book suffers only the limitations of its distinct merit.
4. The Text That Treats Periods in Full.....	Many details are included as well as anecdotes and personalities in the hope of giving a complete picture of a period and a full understanding of its problems.	This text is especially helpful in advanced courses and as reference reading. With elementary school pupils these texts should be used regularly by teachers rather than by the class.	(*a*) Time does not permit teaching the whole of American history from this type of book. (*b*) If two or three different books covering different periods are used, pupils are often confused by the changing viewpoints.
5. Supplementary Historical Readers.....	These books are narrative rather than expository and stress the story more than specific historic events. They usually give a a rich background.	Good for home reading and profitable silent reading that correlates with the history of the grade.	No limitations if the content is authentic.

Conclusion.—Each of these texts has its distinct uses and none can therefore be condemned. The conditions under which instruction is given will usually determine the type of book to be selected. Much could be done to add to the effectiveness of our history texts if the scope of a book were limited. It is rather common to give to a pupil a 500-page text that covers the whole field of American history. For a particular pupil, the course of study may prescribe for one semester the period from 1815 to 1872 or from 1860 to the present. Hundreds of pages are not read by the pupil. They are subjected to natural wear and tear and serve no particular purpose. If books were planned for a given grade, economy would be achieved and the specialized text could readily be made richer in content, in illustrative devices, and in study practices. So long as publishers print books to meet every variety of course of study and grade assignment, the specialized enriched text can hardly be achieved.

How to Judge a Textbook.—Aside from the question of cost, important considerations must enter into the selection of a textbook. We need do little more than sum these up briefly in convenient tabular form.

1. Consideration of Scholarship:
   - (*a*) Is the book accurate in fact, in maps, in details of costume and of modes of living as shown in its illustrations?
   - (*b*) Is the author free from bias of any kind? Is there evidence that the author is partial in discussing moot questions?
2. Pedagogic Considerations:
   - (*a*) Does the book give the pupils clear understanding of events and problems?
   - (*b*) Does the book help the student to help himself? Does it contain many self-help or study features?
   - (*c*) Is the book logically organized, following a topical rather than a chronological treatment?

(*d*) Does the author relate his story to present life? Does he try to develop in young readers an institutional sense?

(*e*) Are the illustrations ample in number and well selected? Do they add to the text and are references made to them? Are they clear and large enough?

(*f*) Does the book give an adequate number of maps that are simple and especially planned to make clear one set of facts?

3. Language Considerations:

(*a*) Is the language used suited to the capabilities of the pupils?

(*b*) Is the style vivid and attractive as well as clear?

(*c*) Is the writing free from any suggestion of "talking down."

4. Mechanical Considerations:

(*a*) Is the book well indexed?

(*b*) Is it typographically correct and attractive?

(*c*) Is the make-up governed by the common hygienic requirements of a book?

How to Use the Textbook.—The final question in our discussion of textbooks, how to use them, has received careful attention in the earlier discussions, specifically, in the analysis of the different types of recitation, modes of assignment, and uses of class texts.[4] The reader by referring to these topics will find not only specific directions for the use of textbooks but also expositions of the full part the book must play in the teaching of history.

Collateral Reading and the Introduction of Source Material

Value of Imaginative Literature with Historical Background.—Professional historians do not agree on the value of historical novels and dramas as aids in the teaching of history. Some hold that "poetry paints what history de-

[4] See pp. 208–217.

scribes." Visits to colonial homes, reading old journals and letters, it is agreed, are means of introducing source material that makes the past alive. Yet Rhodes says, "What I have attempted in the way of color when touching upon South Carolina and Charleston has been completely and artistically done by Owen Wister in *Lady Baltimore.*" [5] Others oppose the use of historic drama and fiction very bitterly. They argue that accuracy of historic detail is never claimed for this type of literature and that "the encomiums pronounced upon atmosphere come so often from those who have scarcely looked at history outside of a text-book that the claims are subject to some suspicion." [6]

The novel or drama that is accurate in its historic atmosphere and historic setting contributes much to history teaching. It gives a picture of the times and of the people. A knowledge of the customs, the prevailing ideas and prejudices, the modes of living, the controlling values of life—these are a few of the by-products of collateral reading of historical fiction and drama. The historic accuracy should in each case be determined by a professional body of teachers of history.

Aims of Supplementary Reading and Simple Reference Work.—There is no serious objection to the assignment of simple references in history. The aims are many and teachers must formulate clearly the definite purpose that is to be attained. Without aim, all this reference work becomes idle gesture. A specific aim determines methods of teaching. In the following summary table we shall list important aims and set forth the procedure for attaining each of them.

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[5] James Ford Rhodes, *History of the United States, from the Compromise of 1850* (The Macmillan Co., 1906), Vol. VI, p. vii.

[6] Henry Johnson, *The Teaching of History* (The Macmillan Co., 1915), p. 404.

AIMS OF SUPPLEMENTARY READING AND MEANS FOR ATTAINING THEM

Aims of Reference and Collateral Reading	*Methods of Attaining These Aims*
1. To train in finding material that enriches the specific topics studied in class and from the class text. To make a more intensive study of an event or a biography.	1. (*a*) Assign definite sources and let the children find the exact page or chapter reference. (*b*) Formulate study questions, the answer to which must be found by the pupils. (*c*) In lieu of study questions, give a bold outline and let children find the facts to clothe the skeleton of topics. (*d*) Ask children to bring in their own outlines of the reading. (*e*) To each committee of pupils, a different assignment may be made. In class, the contributions of the various committees are harmonized and integrated.
2. To open up a larger view of a period or a movement or an outstanding character of history.	2. (*a*) Use many books, assigning a different book to each group. (*b*) The teacher should read especially helpful texts to the class.
3. To teach children to organize material.	3. Apply appropriate suggestions listed above, namely, 1 (*c*), 1 (*d*) and 1 (*e*).
4. To develop ability to use reference books, that is, to find the necessary data.	4. (*a*) Explain the values of a table of contents, an index, a footnote, etc. (*b*) Explain alphabetic or dictionary arrangement of an encyclopedia. (*c*) Teach children to find topics in an advanced history book or in an encyclopedia.

Aims of Reference and Collateral Reading	*Methods of Attaining These Aims*
	(*d*) Assign topics to be looked up; have children bring in the page or chapter reference.
5. To develop an interest in history and historic reading.	5. Give pupils a mimeographed list of suitable books of biography, historical essays and orations, fiction, drama, etc. Encourage reading for pleasure. Do not require formal outlines or reports. In oral compositions children should be encouraged to speak of the books they read, to express their opinions, to read to classmates the most interesting portions, to recite parts worth memorizing, or to relate an especially amusing anecdote. Such lists can be secured from local libraries and from publications of the United States Bureau of Education at Washington.

We have not exhausted all the possible aims; there are others, for example, to learn historic method, and to become familiar with bibliography. We have limited ourselves to those aims that seem within the scope of the junior and senior high school teaching.

Kinds of Material to Assign for Reference and Collateral Reading.—The variety of material that is available is greater than most teachers suspect. We shall merely classify the types of reading that may be undertaken with great profit. Among them we must mention:

1. Novels; example: Gertrude Atherton, *The Conqueror.*
2. Short stories; example: Edith Wharton, *Old New York* or the short stories of Bret Harte.
3. Plays; example: John Drinkwater, *Abraham Lincoln.*
4. Poetry; example: Longfellow, *Paul Revere's Ride.*

5. Historic speeches; example: Burke, *On Conciliation.*
6. Orations; example: Webster's *Bunker Hill Oration.*
7. Biographies; example: Ida Tarbell, *Life of Lincoln.*
8. Diaries; example: *Diary of Gideon Welles.*
9. Selections from old newspapers and magazines.
10. Selections from letters; examples: Letters of Franklin K. Lane, of Roosevelt, of Page.
11. Other textbooks.
12. Larger textbooks that may be used as reference books.
13. Original documents; examples: Declaration of Independence, Emancipation Proclamation, Wilson's Neutrality Proclamation.

When to Introduce Reference and Collateral Reading.—This type of study is usually not productive of results in grades below the seventh year. With superior children, simple collateral reading may be attempted earlier. In all grades reference reading should be kept simple. Teachers often become overambitious and assign references altogether beyond the abilities of the children. It is well to remember that excellent results may be obtained in history teaching by using only one book. Reference and collateral reading serve secondary rather than primary aims of history.

Reading to the Class.—Reading to pupils is always an effective means of arousing keen interest. From the earliest grades, teachers must be on the alert for worth-while material to read to the class. The pupils' response almost invariably compensates the teacher for the effort of the search. Read selected letters of Roosevelt to his children or an incident from John Hay's life telling of his relationship to Lincoln, or an observation from the *Diary of Gideon Welles* or a chapter from the *Autobiography of Carl Schurz.* Let teachers now note how much they have added to the pupils' understanding of events and how sympathetic an attitude has been developed.

Children's Notebooks in History

Their Content.—Pupils often take delight in developing history notebooks. In them one finds samples of all the activities that engaged the class in their study of history. The notebooks may contain:

1. Outlines of portions of the term's work or summaries of important topics.
2. Answers to questions assigned for home work.
3. Reports of collateral reading.
4. Illustrative aids:
   (*a*) pictures that show the processes of industry of a given period or modes of dress, or types of homes or status of transportation.
   (*b*) maps of given sections showing the geographic backgrounds of a set of events.
   (*c*) diagrams illustrating canal lock, the cotton gin, the steam engine, the telegraph, etc.
5. Biographical studies.
6. Records for ready reference:
   (*a*) list of names and dates to be memorized.
   (*b*) poems to be learned by heart.
   (*c*) notes on material not in the class text.
7. Written lessons or tests.
8. Miscellaneous matter; any material the pupil considers interesting and worthy of inclusion, for example a list of worth-while collateral readings.

Cautions in the Care of History Notebooks.—These notebooks are not aids unless subjected to regular inspection by teacher and classmates. It is well to encourage each pupil to make the content of his notebook as distinctive as he possibly can. In this way emulation is aroused and much planning and thinking may be centered on history. If regular inspection is found difficult or extremely inconvenient, notebooks should be discouraged. Unsupervised notebooks are repositories of every type of inaccuracy and undermine serious efforts to develop habits of careful and painstaking work.

The Teaching of Military History

Military History Popular with Young Pupils.—Those who teach history to pre-adolescent children have on occasions noted the intense interest provoked by a description of an unusually bloody military engagement. Sixth-grade pupils, following an historic film portraying the battle of Bunker Hill, shrieked with delight as soldier after soldier, drilled by bullets, went toppling over the embankment. The story of a battle is full of action; it is concrete; it is rich in obvious heroism. But these facts do not constitute adequate reasons for stressing military history.

Cautions in Teaching Military History.—It is essential that we select very carefully the battles to be taught to children. There must be a compelling reason for the inclusion of a specific military or naval encounter. The course in history must not become a study of military science. The military strategy of the last generation, however effective it may have been, is long out-of-date. Since there is a limited number of reasons to justify the teaching of battles, the number of battles that need be taught may well be reduced to a minimum.

Little is gained by teaching names and dates of many battles. Those battles worth knowing should be taught as real situations. With blue and gray chalk the army lines at Gettysburg are indicated and the progress of the fighting recorded on an outline map. As the teacher chalks, the pupils make the appropriate records on their own smaller outline maps. The progress of the battle thus becomes a real story that stirs imagination and succeeds in having its successive pictures painted in the minds of the children.

Reasons for Teaching a Specific Battle.—A military engagement that is worth teaching is either an index of the courageous and determined idealism of an age or the instrument which inaugurates a new set of influences to shape the

progress of mankind. What was the battle of Château Thierry? An illustration of a special kind of military procedure? Surely there was nothing distinguishing in the mode of fighting. At Château Thierry there was the usually devastating shell fire followed by the rush upon the enemy's trenches in the face of his deadly machine guns. Interpret Château Thierry as the expression of the determination of the American soldiers to fight the battle against all battles and the engagement becomes a rich symbol of the idealism of those who regarded the World War as a modern crusade.

The battles of the Revolutionary War were not the real Revolutionary War. The struggle against England developed through two distinct phases: first, up to 1775, every act of protest by the colonists was based on their insistence on their rights as Englishmen; second, after 1775, every act of force was based on their insistence on their rights as men. As military maneuvers, the battles of Lexington and Bunker Hill are hardly worthy of note. But as concrete manifestations of the spirit of the protest against England and of the determination to fight for the right, these two battles acquire new and inspiring significance. Almost overnight, thirty towns and 2,000 provincial minutemen answered the call. Each man knew that he was taking up arms against trained soldiers and that he was laying himself open to the charge of rebellion. Each understood that failure meant death and the paupering of his family. Is the full significance of the Battle of Bunker Hill military or spiritual?

Learning Dates

Temporal Imagination.—Most teachers overestimate the child's comprehension of time. By the Binet-Simon Scale for measuring intelligence, the average child does not fully understand the difference between morning and afternoon

until his sixth year. Through repeated daily experience the child develops a time sense. These times are necessarily limited to *day, morning* or *forenoon, afternoon, hour,* and *week.* Long stretches of time are learned as the child is led to estimate the time required for the completion of known experiences. Thus, *fifty years* becomes *when grandmother was a girl in school.* True, this is no exact measure but it does give a vague idea of the lapse of half a century. Unless we help children translate long stretches of time in terms of more limited experience, such designations as *one hundred years* will mean absolutely nothing to them.

Two Kinds of Dates to Teach.—In history, we find two types of dates very serviceable, the approximate date and the exact date. The function of each is distinctive and necessary. There is first the approximate date. To know "about when" an event occurred helps materially in its interpretation. Thus, we may group Virginia, Plymouth Colony, and New Amsterdam and say that they were settled between 1600 and 1625. Approximate dates maintain correct sequence and associate events chronologically. They act like milestones, set regularly on the road of time.

Exact dates like 1607 or December 21, 1620, or 1624 serve no very useful purpose. They are taught for sentimental reasons. July 4, 1776, April 19, 1775, November 11, 1918, are days that have been made sacred to citizens of America. They must be transmitted because of their acquired significance.

What Dates to Teach.—There is no final or authoritative list of dates that ought to be taught to school children. Studies have been made to determine the dates of greatest usefulness. But these lists do not enjoy universal acceptance in school circles.

The *Twenty-Second Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education presents twenty-five dates arranged in order of frequency with which they are mentioned in

eight current histories.[7] In the last column of the table we see the order of importance attached to some of these dates by leading historians who were asked to set forth the twenty most important dates in rank order.

ORDER OF IMPORTANCE OF DATES IN AMERICAN HISTORY BASED ON FREQUENCY OF OCCURRENCE IN EIGHT TEXTBOOKS AND ON THE JUDGMENT OF LEADING HISTORIANS

Date	Order of Importance Judged by Frequency of Occurrence in Eight Current Histories	Order of Importance According to Leading Historians Listing the Twenty Most Important Dates
1860	1	not included
1850	2	15
1861	3	7
1812	4	11
1865	5	14
1862	6	not included
1890	7	not included
1863	8	9
1864	9	not included
1775	10	17
1776	11	1
1840	12	not included
1787	13	8
1917	14	not included
1910	15	not included
1848	16	not included
1820	17	10
1913	18	not included
1900	19	not included
1846	20	20
1830	21	not included
1789	22	not included
1783	23	13
1898	24	not included
1837	25	not included

It is interesting to note that the differences in position ascribed to the dates by the books and the historians are

[7] Part II (Public School Publishing Co.), p. 324.

very marked. The books did not mention 1492 or 1607 or 1620 or 1803 as frequently as 1837. Ranking these dates according to the frequency with which they occur in the eight current histories, we would ascribe rank 126 to 1492, rank 78 to 1607, rank 141 to 1620 and rank 37 to 1803. The historians do not include a single date of the twentieth century; their most recent date is 1865.

The course of study in history followed in the New York schools prescribes the following dates to be memorized as the child progresses through the grades. The list is not as long as it appears at first glance for certain dates are mentioned more than once because they are noted for more than a single event.

1215	Magna Charta
1440	Printing with movable type
1492	Columbus
1588	Drake and Spanish Armada
1603–1625	James I
1607	Jamestown
1609	Hudson River
1619	Slavery introduced
1620	Pilgrims
1623	Settlement of New Amsterdam
1625–1649	Charles I
1628	Petition of Rights
1649–1660	Cromwell
1664	English Conquest of New Amsterdam
1689	Bill of Rights
1759	Fall of Quebec
1769	Steam engine
1775	Second Continental Congress
1776	Battle of Long Island and Trenton
1777	Surrender of Burgoyne
1781	Articles of Confederation
1783	Treaty of Paris
1789	Constitution goes into operation
1789	French Revolution
1789	Washington's Inauguration

1792 ..... Invention of cotton gin
1803 ..... Purchase of Louisiana
1807 ..... Steamboat
1819 ..... Purchase of Florida
1820 ..... Missouri Compromise
1823 ..... Monroe Doctrine
1825 ..... Opening of Erie Canal
1825 ..... Locomotive
1840 ..... Harvester introduced
1844 ..... First message by telegraph
1846 ..... Sewing machine
1846 ..... Value of ether as an anæsthetic discovered
1848 ..... Gold in California
1861 ..... Secession of States
1861–1865 ..... Civil War
1861–1865 ..... Lincoln's Administration
1862 ..... Monitor and Merrimac
1863 ..... Emancipation Proclamation
1863 ..... Gettysburg and Vicksburg
1865 ..... Surrender of Lee and of Richmond
1865 ..... Assassination of Lincoln
1866 ..... Atlantic Cable laid
1867 ..... Purchase of Alaska
1869 ..... Transcontinental railroad completed
1876 ..... Telephone perfected
1883 ..... Civil Service Reform
1898 ..... War with Spain
1898 ..... United States acquired colonies
1899 ..... First wireless message sent across English Channel
1899 ..... Hague Peace Tribunal
1903 ..... First motor-driven airplane used
1914 ..... Opening of Panama Canal

The reader will undoubtedly find himself in sharp disagreement with each list. Where discrepancies are so marked there is room for individual opinion. The important inference is clearly that there is no substantial agreement on what dates to memorize.

How Shall Pupil Learn Dates?—Only a few dates should be required in each semester, surely not more than six or eight. When one of these required dates is encountered, the teacher should explain its special significance. The date is written on the board and an appropriate identifying expression is associated with it, thus:

1848—GOLD IN CALIFORNIA

QUICKENING OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE WEST

This form is also put on a large cardboard and left in full view for a number of days. Between lessons, pupils are asked to note the facts before them. At the end of a history lesson, an appropriate card containing a new date is added to the stock of flash cards on minimum essentials used for the regular three-minute drill. In this way, a necessary date, like most of the essential facts, is reduced to the plane of habit.

Helping Children to Remember the Facts of History

Teachers frequently complain that children do not remember the facts of history and ask for devices which will give their pupils greater retentiveness and readier recall of the data taught. The preceding chapters are replete with methods for helping children to remember their history. Teachers may not have recognized them because too frequently they look upon remembering as an independent mental process rather than as the result of thinking. If pupils think enough about their experiences, they will remember them. The teacher who is constantly seeking inde-

pendent aids to retention and recall may give evidence that her methods of teaching are seriously at fault.

We have nothing new to suggest at this stage of our discussion. We shall merely sum up all those methods of thinking in history that were discussed at length. These will make the facts of history part of the pupil's controlled stock of facts.

1. *Apply all the suggestions for emphasizing the thought aspect of history:* (*a*) teach topically; (*b*) teach through problems; (*c*) develop projects; (*d*) interpret the events of one period in terms of underlying tendencies; (*e*) encourage logical inferences and causal expectations; (*f*) trace geographic influences; (*g*) introduce frequent well planned, thought-provoking reviews. The student is urged to recall the discussion of these methods and in connection with each to formulate a clear-cut answer to the question, "How will this procedure help the pupil to remember the fundamental facts?"

2. *Follow the suggestions for appealing to imagination.* The more vividly a situation is pictured, the deeper does it sink into consciousness and the greater is the mastery established over it. We urged that to make the past real, we must have recourse to the following practices: (*a*) a rich basis of sense experience; (*b*) elaborate use of pictorial aids; (*c*) vivid oral presentation by the teacher; (*d*) emphasis on the dramatic aspect of historical experiences; (*e*) identification of the child with the situation through dramatizations, pageantry, and visits to places of historic interest; (*f*) wise and adequate use of maps; (*g*) liberal correlations. Let the reader refer to the full discussion of these aids and then ask himself how each of these modes of teaching must inevitably tighten the child's grip on the specific details.

3. On all appropriate occasions, *use the outline of guidance and encourage children to formulate their own out-*

lines of summary. These two forms of outlines are discussed and illustrated in an earlier part of this chapter. The child who follows the outline of guidance as the lesson is unfolded and constructs his own outline of summary not only exercises greater self-activity but makes visual and motor contributions to the auditory impressions that the teacher seeks to create.

4. *The rapid-fire drill.* In our discussion we have made frequent references to the value of the rapid three- or four-minute drill on the absolutely irreducible minimum of cold fact that must be retained forever. Each lesson in history is preceded or followed by one of these drill lessons. Each week a few items are added to the list and such old ones as have acquired the permanence of habit are dropped. These three-minute drills give control of detail and leave ample time for the vital narration and exposition of history that concern themselves with institutional life.

5. *Topical discussions.* At the end of a lesson, its three or four main topics are elicited. These are written on the board as if they were paragraph headings. The first topic is then assigned for discussion. Children are taught to recall all they can about the theme and then decide what to select as pivotal. After two minutes of preparation, a pupil is called upon to discuss the first topic. What he says is subjected to criticism. His classmates urge the inclusion of certain items or the elimination of some of his offerings. Reasons are given back and forth until the teacher decides to act as final arbiter. The second topic is then assigned for similar preparation, exposition, and discussion. Surely, children who review the lesson in this manner are thinking deeply about every significant phase of it and are, therefore, likely to retain most of what is essential.

6. A similar device is to assign each of the subtopics to

a different group or committee charged with preparing *a five-minute written composition.* Results are then read and frankly criticized. The disadvantage of this procedure lies in the fact that any one pupil prepares actively only one part of the lesson and reviews the other parts by listening to his classmates. Where time is a serious factor, the former method may not prove practical for it is decidedly more time-consuming.

7. *Encourage children to reduce information to tabular form.* After certain topics are completed, it is well to ask pupils to prepare a table that summarizes all that is important. Let us assume that the class has come to the end of the study of the development of transportation from the old ox team and sailboats to the present. In a short discussion it is decided to adopt an arrangement like the following:

Form of Transportation	Description	When Used or Invented	Significance for Human Progress

The pupils then set to work to fill in the appropriate facts. They are permitted to use their notes and textbooks in order to verify details. The completion of the task involves very active recall of all the facts and the selection of those that are essential; surely, this is nothing more than a mode of rigorous thinking.

8. Another practice, not unrelated to the preceding one, is to require *children to make maps* that summarize a whole line of thought. If the class has just completed the study of the Treaty of Versailles, the pupils begin by making an outline map of Europe showing the national boundary lines

of 1914. By colored crayons the changes in territory and the new boundary lines are indicated. A key below the map gives the meaning of each color. This visual-motor appeal is very effective in helping the pupil to remember the basic territorial readjustments.

9. All devices that *develop study technique* are potent aids to memory. Pupils who learn their lesson by answering the teacher's set questions or by outlining the text or by seeking, in the printed page, a solution to a given problem are more likely to remember their lesson than those who passively receive what is taught them. The reader is here referred to the various study devices set forth in the discussion of the study recitation.[8]

10. It is often held that what is needed for effective drill is not more time for more drill but an *adjustment of drill according to need.* As a rule, all children drill on all the facts. But some children know most facts and almost all children know some facts. It follows, therefore, that no group of children needs drill on precisely the same facts. It is wise to plan minimum essential tests on specific facts by means of some form of the new type of tests discussed in the following chapter. After the papers are scored, they are returned to the pupils who see precisely where they failed. Each child now has an individual list of historical facts upon which he must drill. We have learned the value of an individual spelling list to supplement the class spelling list. So, too, we need individual drill on the facts of history to supplement the class drills.

These suggestions for helping the pupil to remember are given in the hope of laying the ax, for all time, to the practices either of dictating notes or of assigning sections of mimeographed summaries for memorization. Nothing

[8] See pp. 208–215.

that is educationally sound can be offered for either of these very common classroom devices. All the suggestions that we have thus far listed seek to attain the desired end through the pupils' rather than the teachers' efforts.

The Teacher's Self-Check in History Teaching

With the growth of large schools, direct and helpful supervision of a teacher's work is becoming increasingly difficult. We may, therefore, conclude our study of methods and devices by offering a self check which a professionally minded teacher may apply at frequent and regular intervals. Judge your work in the light of the answers you must give to these questions:

1. Do I attain the specific aim I set for each lesson?
2. Do I, in the course of a week or fortnight, give children a deeper understanding of their institutional life? Is the history I teach related to the present? Does it grow out of existing conditions?
3. Do I succeed, through my narrative and graphic aids, in creating the atmosphere of the period I teach?
4. Is the material I present well organized? Is there an underlying purpose? Do the topics follow logically rather than chronologically? Is relativity of importance clearly indicated?
5. Is my teaching enriched by worth-while correlations and by the introduction of carefully selected, inspiring biographies?
6. Do I introduce devices to make for permanent possession of facts? Have I thought-provoking reviews and many short, regular drills?
7. Does my teaching beget adequate pupil reaction? Do I stimulate them to historic dramatization? Is their attention challenged by historic problems and projects?
8. Do I teach them how to study history?
9. Do I arouse interest in places of historic significance in the vicinity?
10. Do I see any evidence that pupils are reading historic matter not assigned?

Surely not all of these questions can be answered affirmatively by any teacher. They may serve us, however, in

constructive introspection by indicating the elements in our teaching that need renewed effort toward improvement.

Problems for Study and Discussion

1. Make a suitable outline of guidance for one of the following topics: Problems of reconstruction after the Civil War; the entrance of the United States into the Spanish American War; the development of transportation from 1850 to 1925; the movement for prohibition; modern American architecture and engineering. Expand this outline of guidance into an outline of summary.

2. Select three history textbooks commonly used in schools. To which type of book does each belong? To what extent does each book possess the characteristics and limitations set down in the table on page 230?

3. Make a careful evaluation of a textbook suitable for use in a sixth grade; of a second book for the eighth year. What considerations determine your evaluations? Assign a relative numerical value to each item in the evaluation making a total of 100 points. Make a quantitative evaluation.

4. Make three assignments for reference reading and three others for collateral reading, as if to a class. For each assignment, state (*a*) the aim; (*b*) the grade; (*c*) the procedure you would follow. Assuming that the procedure, as planned, has been carried out successfully, list the gains that may reasonably be expected from such work.

5. List the battles, both land and naval, of all the American wars, that you would teach pupils of the junior high schools. In each instance give reasons to justify the inclusion of each battle. Compare your selection with the list of battles given in a recognized school text. What differences do you note between the two lists?

6. Visit a classroom to observe a lesson in history. If the teacher of the class were using the self check offered on page 249, how should he or she answer the ten questions? What specific suggestions can you give this teacher for the improvement of the quality of the teaching of history?

7. Give a short test to the members of your class on (*a*) the 25 dates most frequently referred to in eight textbooks (see p. 241); (*b*) the 20 dates regarded as most important by profes-

sors of history; (*c*) the dates prescribed by the course of study of New York City. What is the average score of the class? What is the highest score? The lowest? State two conclusions regarding the teaching of dates that may be drawn from the scores made by the members of your class.

8. What undesirable classroom procedures in the teaching of history are often justified by teachers on the ground that these help children to remember the facts of history? For each objectionable practice give a more effective means of securing longer retention of historic data.

CHAPTER XVI

TESTING THE RESULTS OF TEACHING

Self-Expression as a Mode of Testing

ONLY as the child expresses himself can one gauge the comprehension of his knowledge and his capacity to learn. We therefore find as many modes of testing as there are forms of self-expression. We can express ourselves in three ways: through gesture, through creation and representation of objects, and through language. The tests developed on each of these forms of self-expression must now be considered.

Testing through Gesture

The teacher can judge the extent of the child's mastery of facts by his responses in dramatic pantomimes and pageants. Various scenes of the period studied are listed on the board. A child steps forward and portrays in pantomimic form one of the scenes listed on the board. Others are called upon to guess the title. When necessary to harmonize conflicting opinions, the child may be asked to justify his mode of presentation.

This is a device that can be used in early grades and gives the child free opportunity to exercise initiative and resourcefulness. In the more ambitious presentations of simple pageantry, the class participates in the planning and execution, in the criticism of pupils' presentations, and in suggesting modes of improvement. History, literature, oral

English, manual activities, design, and physical training are freely interrelated to produce an interesting project in self-expression.

Testing through Creation of Objects

By creating the past objectively or pictorially the child gives evidence of comprehension of the life and experiences studied in the history lessons. By using modeling wax or clay or the sand table simple regional projects are carried out. Children working in small groups may lay out the pioneer settlement on the sand table. Outline drawings of simple huts are mounted on cardboard and set about on the river bank or in a protected area near the sea coast. The stockade is built of small sticks. Farm and pasture lands are then set off. Small pictures of suitable theme are cut out, mounted, and inserted near house or farm or pasture to show various activities of communal living. Similarly a church is set up, roads are indicated, and people are shown in the normal routine of living of that day.

In like manner, the class may use the sand table for building a modern village, a large western farm, or a modern battlefield. To these forms of self-expression we may add drawing of pictures, mounting of cut-out pictures, making of costumes and useful articles, all related to the period studied. Selecting pictures that show changes in living and working conditions after the coming of machinery and steam power, arranging them in sequence and then labeling each, is another test of knowledge. Children who found pictures to illustrate the story "The Old and the New" and then arranged them in contrasting columns showed clearly their mastery of the historic facts taught them. These forms of tests establish rich centers of correlation and help the child "to relive the past in all three dimensions."

Testing through Language

The usual mode of testing pupils is through language, oral or written. We are all familiar with the oral quiz and the written examination. In preceding chapters, we discussed the outline, the five-minute composition, the written answers to study questions, the written or oral answer to a problem as means of judging the knowledge status of pupils.[1] No more need be said about these at this time.

The Teacher's Test.—Another form of language test is the written test or examination devised by teachers or supervisors. Unless we give careful thought to the planning of a test, we fail to test what is vital and produce discouragement for both pupils and teachers.

A complete test should have three distinct parts. The first part is concerned with discovering the pupils' mastery of minimum essential facts. Names, dates, causes, conditions, sequence of events—all these are here included in questions that require answers in very few words. This clearly is a memory test.

The second part of the test seeks to ascertain the degree of the child's understanding of underlying tendencies and of causal relations. The questions asked are based on the material taught in class. But they are so formulated that they do not call for a strict verbal reproduction of the text read and of material presented by the teacher. The test now concerns itself with measuring the degree of understanding.

The two parts should be separated. They need not be given on the same day. The separate results should be given to the pupils so that they may know where they failed. The pupil who has a keen mind and makes a low grade in the first part can draw the obvious inference. His classmate, distinctly weaker mentally, may do well on

[1] See p. 246.

the first part and fall low on the second. The teacher then praises the latter for his attention and successful study of the facts. This pupil finds encouragement in this recognition. But if we fuse the two parts of the test and give pupils a single rating, then what does the grade 75 per cent or 55 per cent now show? The hard-working, mediocre student may have answered correctly 85 per cent of the memory questions and only 25 per cent of the thought questions. His single rating conceals his good work and causes him undue discouragement.

Occasionally, a third section should be added to test the children's growth in mental power as well as in knowledge. We insist rather vigorously that good teaching of history trains in judgment, in selection, and in ability to interpret conduct. This has become a sacred belief, usually accepted without proof. The proposed addition to the test is designed to check these disciplinary results of history teaching. In this third part, questions are asked more frequently on new matter than on old. Typical of these questions we may mention:

The Questions	*The Object of the Questions*
1. Our last lesson brought us to the end of the first battle of Burgoyne's campaign. Study the map and indicate the probable line of march of the British; of the Americans. Give your reasons.	1. To test the power of the child to draw inferences from a map as a result of similar practices in previous lessons.
2. Study the map of southeastern United States to the Mississippi River. Name three physical difficulties that De Soto was bound to encounter.	2. To test power of map interpretation.

The Questions	*The Object of the Questions*
3. Study the picture of the Puritans going to Church. What does it tell you?	3. To test power to draw inferences from a picture. Will children draw conclusions about customs, character of the seasons, preparation for imminent danger, etc.?
4. Our history gives the impression that all the colonists were aroused to indignation by the Stamp Act. Read these two paragraphs. Do they support this view? What facts are produced by their author? Which do you respect more, the treatment in your book or this story of the Stamp Act? Why?	4. To test ability to obtain facts from new text and draw reasonable inferences.
5. The subject of our next lesson in history will be the military results of our participation in the World War. Look up references on this question in the following books and bring in the number of the pages that give you the required information.	5. To test power to find necessary data in common but simple reference books.
6. It has been said that the Nineteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States is the last step in the freedom of all the American people. Make a list of the steps in the freedom of American people. Use your books and other aids freely.	6. To ascertain whether pupils can use facts in their books to solve a simple problem.

The Questions	*The Object of the Questions*
7. At the end of the trial that sought Johnson's impeachment, it was evident that the President was ....., ..., and ..... Name three traits of Johnson's character.	7. To test ability to evaluate personality.
8. There are two distinct differences between the Magna Charta and the Declaration of Independence. Name them. Feel free to refer to your textbook.	8. To test ability to make comparisons and see differences.
9. Almost all the events that we noted between 1815 and 1860 contributed toward one unmistakable tendency. Name this tendency and justify your inference. Use any written or printed aid.	9. To test ability to see forces underlying the progress of events.

Throughout the teaching of history we strive to emphasize its thought aspect in the hope that we shall send our pupils to the next grade with greater penetration and with stronger power to apply the facts that they learn. Monthly tests of this character are designed to measure growth of power as well as mastery of information.

The New-Type Test

What May We Reasonably Ask of a Test?

An effective test is one which gives, with a reasonable expenditure of time on the part of the teacher and pupil, an accurate measure of the qualities which are tested. Such a test, therefore:

1. Arouses the interest of the pupil in his personal progress
2. Serves as a motive for intelligent preparation and study

3. Produces data which help diagnose the weaknesses of pupils
4. Reveals the relative merits of the methods used by the teacher
5. Develops in the child concentration and self-reliance
6. Gives an accurate measure of the pupil based on the whole subject

It may be observed that we have just described the ideal test, necessary but nonexistent. Although such an examination has not as yet been evolved, some of the newer tests hopefully approximate it.

Parts of the New-Type Test

In order to evolve a test that is accurate and inclusive, it must be made up of various subtests, each of which is explained in its own section.

True-False Test.—The pupil is asked to read a set of sentences and to indicate whether in his judgment each statement is true or false. No reasons are required, merely the prompt reaction of the student. There should be at least thirty of these statements if the true-false test is to be supplemented by other forms of test. A true-false test, as a whole test, is not reliable unless it has at least 125 or 150 statements.

Illustration of True-False Questions

After each sentence indicate whether it is true or false. Read each statement carefully and if true, place a *plus sign* (+) on the line provided; if false, place a *zero* (0) on the line. Do not guess because wrong answers count more against you than omitted answers.

1. Columbus was the only man of his day to believe the world to be round. .....
2. America hesitated long before taking sides in the World War. .....
3. In arguing for the League of Nations, Wilson followed a belief he often expressed before we entered the War. .....
4. America asked no more of Spain at the Peace Conference than at the time war was declared. .....

5. A child born in California of Japanese parents is a citizen of California and of the United States. .....
6. The Supreme Court of the United States has the right to declare any law null and void if it does not serve the best interests of the people. .....
7. Lincoln's idea of government resembled Hamilton's. .....
8. The United States ratified the Treaty of Versailles. .....
9. The Dred Scott decision made the whole country slave territory. .....
10. The Battle of Gettysburg was the turning point in the Civil War. .....
11. The direct and sole cause of the Civil War was slavery. .....
12. The French were the first to explore southern Canada, the Great Lakes, and the Mississippi River Valley. .....
13. The World War gave birth to no new nations. .....
14. Wilson's Fourteen Points helped to make clear the object of the War. .....
15. Our help to the Allies was confined solely to making large money loans. .....

Multiple-Choice Test.—In the true-false test, the child has only one out of two chances to answer correctly. Another type of question is, therefore, devised in which he must choose one of three or four or five possible correct statements. The pupil must think quickly and make his decision. These questions are also designated by the term, Selective Responses.

Illustrations of Multiple-Choice Questions

Underline that part of the statement that makes the whole statement true. Do not underline more than one part.

1. McKinley established a government in the Philippine Islands most like
   (*a*) our state government (*c*) a territorial government
   (*b*) our federal government (*d*) the government of Porto Rico
2. The Civil War began in
   (*a*) 1862 (*b*) 1860 (*c*) 1850 (*d*) 1760

3. Cornwallis surrendered at
   (*a*) Valley Forge (*c*) Trenton
   (*b*) Gettysburg (*d*) Yorktown
4. Wilson delayed our entrance into the World War because
   (*a*) he thought it might be possible to keep us out of the war.
   (*b*) he was pro-British.
   (*c*) he was pro-French.
   (*d*) he thought we could get most out of the war by waiting.
5. The Declaration of Independence was written by
   (*a*) Washington (*c*) Benjamin Franklin
   (*b*) Patrick Henry (*d*) Jefferson
6. The President of the Southern Confederacy was
   (*a*) Jefferson Davis (*c*) McClellan
   (*b*) Lee (*d*) Calhoun
7. The Boxer Uprising took place in
   (*a*) Venezuela (*b*) Mexico (*c*) Japan (*d*) China
8. Wellington was an English
   (*a*) architect (*b*) general (*c*) poet (*d*) prime minister
9. A famous governor of New York State in the early part of the last century was
   (*a*) Robert Fulton (*c*) De Witt Clinton
   (*b*) Daniel Webster (*d*) Peter Stuyvesant
10. Czechoslovakia became a new state by
    (*a*) adoption of new boundary lines after the World War
    (*b*) revolution
    (*c*) purchase of its land
    (*d*) by popular vote

Completion Test.—Experience has shown that a test in which the pupil must supply certain key ideas is perhaps the most effective means of gauging mental acquisition and capacity for further learning. Care must be taken to state enough of the general thought to give the pupil an intelligent idea of what is required and not to give so much that the correct answer is inevitable. The following completion questions may be judged unsatisfactory for they commit one of the fallacies just mentioned:

"After the entry of America into the War, Germany knew that her hope of winning the war depended upon her winning it ....."

"The man who had ..... influence in the Constitutional Convention at ..... times .... in every case the men who took an active part in the debates."

The answer to the first is too obvious. The second question presents more of a puzzle than we may be ready to incorporate in a serious test in history.

Examples of Completion-Test Questions

Supply in the space provided the important word or words that have been omitted. Do not write more than a few words.

1. The German dream of a great railroad from Berlin to ..... did not come true.
2. Instead the new map showed that Germany was .....
3. Austria and Hungary were .....
4. At least three new countries were born; these are ....., ..., and .....
5. Two countries that gained territory were ..... and .....
6. Alsace-Lorraine was taken from ..... and returned to .....
7. All these changes were provided in the Treaty of ..... which was ratified by all the nations except .....
8. After the War, serious differences arose among the allied nations, especially between ..... and .....; also between ..... and .....[2]

Indicating Sequence.—An interesting test requires pupils to arrange a given number of items in logical, chronological, or causal sequence. This is an excellent test of knowledge of dates and events and their relationship.

The following is a sample of this type of test:

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[2] Based on a paragraph in Robbins' *School History of the United States*, p. 521.

ILLUSTRATION OF QUESTIONS REQUIRING ESTABLISHMENT OF A SEQUENCE

Each question consists of a number of items. Arrange these in the order in which they occurred by inserting, 1, in the boxes before the event that occurred first; insert 2, 3, 4, etc., before the events that occurred second, third and fourth, etc., respectively. Do not write words or reasons. Write figures only.

1. Steps in the development of navigation are
   - ☐ Wooden steamboat
   - ☐ Steel boat
   - ☐ Sailboat
   - ☐ Side-wheel steamboats
   - ☐ Propeller steamboats

2. Events in the Civil War were
   - ☐ Battle of Gettysburg
   - ☐ Fall of Vicksburg
   - ☐ Fall of Richmond
   - ☐ Firing on Fort Sumter

3. In the history of slavery one meets with these interesting events:
   - ☐ Kansas fights
   - ☐ John Brown's raids
   - ☐ Dred Scott case
   - ☐ Missouri Compromise
   - ☐ The Compromise that admitted California

4. In the development of laws to protect women and children the following must be studied:
   - ☐ Granting votes to women
   - ☐ Coming of machinery
   - ☐ Growth of cities
   - ☐ Steam power applied to machinery

5. A new federal law passes through these stages:
   - ☐ Passed by both houses
   - ☐ Signed by President of United States
   - ☐ Committee debates
   - ☐ Introduction by a Congressman

Test of Labeling.—A map is given to the class, which shows the parts of the New World claimed by Spain, England, France, and Holland. The pupils are asked to insert the names of the claimants in the proper sections. A diagram of a canal and canal lock is shown and the pupils must write names that identify the various elements, such as, high level of canal, lock, gates that are shut, gates that

are open, lower level of canal. The same device can be applied to the telegraph, the steam engine, or the harvester. The amount of writing is reduced to a minimum and each pupil can be graded at a moment's inspection.

The Matching Test.—Another interesting type of test consists of two parallel lists, the items of which are arranged in promiscuous order. The pupils must match an item in the first column with an item in the second. This can be applied to commanders and their battles, to discoverers and their achievements, to writers and artists and their masterpieces, to statesmen and their political theories.

ILLUSTRATIONS OF QUESTIONS REQUIRING MATCHING

Match items in the first list with corresponding items of the second list by putting similar number in front of each. Assume that the following question is given:

Commanders	*Battles or Events*
.... Washington	.... Saratoga
.... Prescott	.... Bunker Hill
.... Arnold	.... Trenton
.... John Paul Jones	.... The War in the South
.... Nathanael Greene	.... *Bon Homme Richard* v. *Serapis*

You would put 1 before Washington. Since he was commander at Trenton, you place 1 before Trenton. Label Prescott 2 and put 2 before Bunker Hill, the battle at which he commanded. Similarly put 3 before Arnold and 3 before Saratoga. Why? Put 4 before John Paul Jones and 4 before *Bon Homme Richard* v. *Serapis*. Why? Greene was commander of the war in the South, hence 5 is placed before Greene and also before the statement, The War in the South.

1. Match the following inventors with their inventions by using similar numbers.

.... John Ericsson	.... steamboat
.... Samuel F. B. Morse	.... telegraph
.... Cyrus McCormick	.... the reaper
.... Elias Howe	.... screw propeller
.... Robert Fulton	.... sewing machine

2. Match the following statesmen with their famous utterance by using similar numbers.

.... Lincoln	.... Avoid entangling alliances
.... Grant	.... Make the world safe for democracy
.... Wilson	.... I would rather be right than president
.... Clay	.... Let us have peace
.... Washington	.... Government of the people, for the people, by the people

The Essay-Provoking Test.—It must not be assumed that a new-type test shuns the effective questions of the old type that call for answers in the form of short essays. These time-honored questions test the pupils' ability to develop a thought and to give adequate expression to it. A complete test may be organized on one of the following plans or on a modification of it.

Plan I		*Plan II*		*Plan III*	
True-False	15%	True-False	10%	Completion	40%
Completion	30%	Matching	20%	Indicating Order	20%
Multiple-Choice	20%	Completion	30%	Essay Questions	40%
Essay Questions	35%	Essay Questions	40%		
	100%		100%		100%

Plan IV		*Plan V*	
True-False	10%	Indicating Order	10%
Multiple-Choice	20%	Matching	20%
Matching	20%	Completion	30%
Completion	20%	Essay Questions	40%
Essay Questions	30%		
	100%		100%

How to Plan a New-Type Test

A few simple suggestions may be of service to the teacher inexperienced in the formulation of the new-type tests.

1. Make all explanations at the head of a test very brief and exceedingly simple. It is helpful to include an illustration of the kind of response that is desired.

2. Mimeograph the test so that each pupil may have an individual copy. If this cannot be done, read (but do not dictate) the true-false test to the class, stopping after each statement for the pupils' reactions. The same procedure may be followed for the completion test. But the other tests—multiple-choice, labeling, and matching—must be written on the board. It is only when each pupil works on his own mimeographed or printed test paper that he is saved from the distractions that militate against concentration.

3. Do not try to catch the pupil. Make each statement explicit enough to direct the mind into the right channel. Questions like the following serve no useful end: "There are times when the convictions of a whole nation may be shaped slowly and gradually by a persistent clearsighted minority, as is seen in the new method of choosing. . . ." Why make the mountain labor for so little? We condemn just as emphatically the question that calls for the obvious answer, namely, "Monroe formulated our attitude in certain problems of foreign relations in the . . . Doctrine," or, "The Declaration of . . . was written by Jefferson." There is as little justification for the last two questions as for the first.

4. In the true-false test there must be no half-true, half-false statements, nor may we place the true and false statements in any regular order. Do not alternate true and false statements nor make the first four true and the next four false. There should be as many true as false

statements, and their arrangement should be as free from any fixed order as possible.

5. Gather material for the different types of tests all through the term. As a good multiple-choice or completion question occurs, jot it down on a card and file it for the day when the test must be formulated. This will save teachers much time and worry from working under pressure and give a wealth of material from which the best questions may be chosen.

6. We have no scientific data to help us in deciding how many of each type of statement we may expect pupils to answer per minute. Opinion based on personal experience would indicate the following for pupils between eleven and fourteen:

True-false statements—about 5 to the minute
Multiple-choice statements—about 2 to 3 to the minute
Single sentence completion statements—about 3 to the minute

Each teacher should keep accurate records of the time the class finds necessary for each type of test and then be guided by them.

7. The statements in a test should be arranged, as far as possible, in order of difficulty. This is for an emotional effect. Begin with the simplest questions so that pupils gain confidence and facility in the kind of reaction that is required. To begin with a very difficult statement causes discouragement and sets up strong inhibitions.

8. When a test is completed, each teacher should administer it to herself. Many shortcomings in language and judgment will be revealed. The necessary changes can, therefore, be made before the test is given to the pupils.

How to Score the New-Type Tests

In the true-false test there is a strong element of chance. It is possible by tossing a coin fifty times to have as many

heads as tails. Hence a pupil may theoretically guess half the answers correctly even though he does not understand a single one of the statements. To minimize the significance of guessing, the true-false test is scored as follows: give a plus credit for each correct answer; give a zero for each unanswered question; give a negative credit for each wrong answer. The final score equals the sum of the plus credits, minus the sum of the negative credits. Because the wrong answer is penalized, the pupil is discouraged from guessing. Let us assume that in a test of 100 true-false statements, Student A had 80 right, 5 unanswered, and 15 wrong. His score is 80 —15, or 65. Student B had 72 right, 10 unanswered, and 18 wrong; his score is 72 —18, or 54. Student C had 50 right, 10 unanswered, and 40 wrong; his score is 50 —40, or 10.

At first thought this practice of exacting a penalty for a wrong answer may seem unjust, but further analysis will dispel such a belief. It is clear that no credit should be given for a question that is not answered. Let us assume that a semi-illiterate person takes a true-false test in psychology, a subject about which he knows nothing. By chance, he may answer 50 of the hundred questions correctly. His score is 50 right minus 50 wrong, or zero, the precise measure of what he knows of psychology.

Multiple-choice tests are scored more easily. A credit is given for each correct answer and no credit for unanswered or incorrectly answered statements. The reason for not penalizing a wrong answer is simple. Where the student must pick one of four possibilities, the chance for guessing is materially reduced, and he lets reason guide him.

To score the other tests, merely add up the number of points allowed for each incomplete statement correctly completed or for each item correctly matched or placed in correct sequence.

A final problem is how to determine the final grade to be given a pupil for any one test or for all his tests. It is not necessary to plan the whole test so that its several parts make a total of 100 points. Let the total be what it will. Arrange the scores in order of rank, the highest first and gradually descending to the lowest. Give the highest 10 per cent of the class an *A;* the next 20 per cent a *B;* the next 40 per cent a *C;* the next 20 per cent a *D;* the last 10 per cent an *E.*

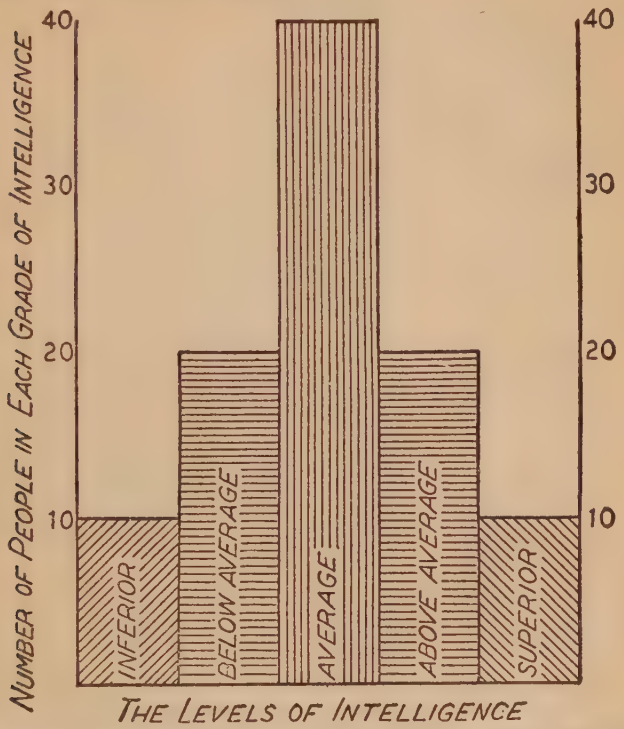
If we were to rate 100 unselected people for any quality, say, intelligence, we would normally find the following distribution:

40 of the group would have distinctly average intelligence
20 of the group would have more than average intelligence
20 of the group would have less than average intelligence
10 of the group would have distinctly superior intelligence
10 of the group would have distinctly inferior intelligence

Let us represent this distribution graphically in the figure below.

On the vertical line we represent the number of individuals who attain a given grade of intelligence; on the horizontal line, the grades of intelligence. The highest section in the diagram represents the greatest number of individuals. In any group the people having average height or weight or kindness or intelligence form the largest subgroup. Then as we go above and below the average, we find fewer and fewer people. The teacher who invariably fails 30 to 40 per cent of the pupils or who has 30 to 40 per cent *A* grade pupils is either unreasonably severe or foolishly generous. True, not all groups tested will be distributed in strict accord with this bell-shaped graph but it is well for those unfamiliar with statistical method to reëxamine a group critically where there is sharp divergence from normal distribution. Whether the last

group alone, that is, those with *E*, should be considered the failures, or whether all those below average, that is, those with *D* and *E*, should be rated failures, is a policy for each school to decide.



DIAGRAMMATIC REPRESENTATION OF THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE INTELLIGENCE OF 100 UNSELECTED PERSONS

Comparative Value of the New-Type Tests

We shall now compare the new-type tests with an ideal test that meets all the requirements of an effective examination. For the sake of economy, we shall develop the discussion in parallel columns.

Criteria of an Effective Test	*To What Extent Does a New-Type Test Meet These Criteria?*
1. It is interesting as a task because of the character of its questions.	1. Those who use the new-type tests have found them interesting to all pupils except the least competent group of a class.
2. It is economical for teacher and pupil.	2. The intention of the pupil is easily and quickly detected. In the new-type tests there is a minimum of writing on the part of the pupil. The teacher is saved the reading of long essay answers, especially in the social studies. On the other hand, it must be noted that much labor and time go to the making of the test. A careful investigation shows that in history the preparation of the new test takes two and one half times as long as the preparation of the old-type test.[3] To offset this, there is economy in scoring. Then, too, a new-type test, properly guarded, may be used for three or four successive semesters.
3. It must be comprehensive, covering as much of the subject as possible.	3. The various parts of the new-type test can cover an astonishingly large field of experience. This, the old essay-provoking questions could not possibly do. The different kinds of questions enable a teacher to repeat what is foundational and thus give this theme the important place it merits in a test. A thirty-five-minute test may consist of 50 true-false, 25 multiple-choice, and 30 completion statements, a total of

[3] S. G. Brinkley, "Value of the New Type Examination in High Schools, *Contributions to Education*, No. 161 (Columbia University, 1924).

Criteria of an Effective Test	*To What Extent Does a New-Type Test Meet These Criteria?*
	105 questions. Surely, this produces a comprehensive test.
4. It must lend itself to achieving very definite ends.	4. An old-style test paper with its eight or ten questions is in the very nature of the case inflexible. With the new-style test we may plan one part to measure memory of facts; another, understanding of cause and effect relation; a third, penetration; a fourth, ability to judge character. The results give the teacher information that is definite. A grade of 65 per cent secured in an undifferentiated old-style test tells, in the last analysis, very little.
5. It must give results that are not seriously affected by such improper preparation as cramming or coaching. It must measure the vital and permanent results of teaching and study.	5. It is very difficult to be coached for a new-type test. The questions are too numerous and the hobbies of an instructor are not so easily discerned. The new test aims to gauge a pupil's ready judgment as developed by classroom activity and his ready command of the important facts of all parts of his subject. The permanent rather than the temporary possessions are measured.
6. It must give results that can be used in planning to overcome weaknesses exhibited by the pupils.	6. The differentiated parts of the new-type test reveal the outstanding weakness of a pupil. We can tell whether he needs drill on specific facts or more active participation in thought-provoking applications. In the old-type tests, knowledge of a subject is often concealed by language limitations of the pupil. Writ-

Criteria of an Effective Test	*To What Extent Does a New-Type Test Meet These Criteria?*
	ing in the new tests is reduced to a minimum, and the answers are planned to exhibit knowledge of subject matter and the quality of mental reactions.
7. It must give results that are reliable and not affected by such considerations as the teacher's prejudice, the pupil's fear, the dislike for writing, inability to write quickly, and lack of physical endurance.	7. Experimentalists have found the results of the new-type tests more reliable than those of the old type.[4] A thirty-minute completion test has given the writer student grades that are in closer keeping with term grades than those produced by a two-hour test paper calling for ten small essays.
8. It must be easily administered.	8. The new-style test is at least as easily administered as the old. There is no need to reread a question to the class so that the teacher's emphasis will correct possible misunderstanding. The loss of a single or even a dozen questions is not a serious matter. But complete failure in two questions of the old-style test makes a very serious loss of credit.

[4] T. H. Briggs, "An Examination in First Term Latin," *The Classical Weekly*, Vol. 16, No. 19; A. I. Gates, "True-False Test as a Measure of Achievement in College Courses," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. 12; Ben D. Wood, *Measurement in Higher Education* (World Book Co.).

Evaluation of the New-Type Test

It is urged that excessive time is required to formulate a new-type test. Time and energy are required, but the resulting gains more than repay for the effort. Besides, each new class does not require a new test. Old tests, properly kept from the pupils, may be used more than once.

Some teachers oppose the true-false questions on the ground that guessing is not eliminated. We have shown how guessing is minimized and discouraged. Then, too, it is argued that a condition may not *always* be absolutely true or false; its accompanying circumstances usually determine its truth or falsity. This is undoubtedly true, but a condition is *usually* true or false. We are testing knowledge of facts and conditions in their *usual,* not in their extraordinary, setting.

A further argument against the new-type tests is that their questions test memory of facts and not ability to think. But this again is an exaggeration of a tendency. All questions necessitate recall of certain facts. In the true-false, multiple-choice, completion, and matching questions, we seek to ascertain the habitual reaction, the habitual judgment of the pupil. We must reiterate an earlier conclusion that the essay-provoking questions must not be eliminated; they must be supplemented by the new-style questions to make the examination paper as a whole, more comprehensive and productive of more reliable results.

Problems for Study and Discussion

The reader is referred to the end of Chapter XVII, page 293, for a list of problems.

CHAPTER XVII

STANDARDIZED TESTS IN HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT

Need for Standardized Tests

We have developed exact measures to meet most of our needs. We measure food values, heat, gases, electricity, or steam power in units that are standardized. We know precisely the amount of work that can be accomplished by an engine generating 100 horse power.

There is vital need of media for measuring the results of instruction which are as exact as those that measure mere physical forces. True, many of the influences of skillful teaching are so spiritual that they escape the efforts of the most scientific test. But many tangible results are ascribed directly to the activities of the teacher. These should be measured in terms of units that are commonly understood and never vary.

Estimates of Merit Made by Teachers Show Marked Variations.—The literature of experimental education is rich in evidence of the lack of reasonable uniformity in judging the products of pupils. Facsimile copies of test papers in English, geometry, and history were submitted to high school teachers of these subjects. They were directed to grade each paper on the basis of a maximum of 100 points. Starch and Elliott then arranged the grades assigned by the different teachers. Variations were expected, but the variations actually found are truly startling. The chances are often one out of two or three that

a pupil rated a failure in one school would be rated as doing satisfactory work by a teacher in the same school or in a different school of equal rank located in the same section of the country. The geometry paper was rated by 128 teachers in the North Central States.[1] Here are the variations:

2 teachers rated the paper more than 90 per cent
1 teacher rated the paper below 30 per cent
20 teachers rated the paper 80 per cent or higher
24 teachers rated the paper 60 per cent or less
47 teachers rated the paper as passing (75 per cent) or better
69 teachers rated the paper as failure (less than 75 per cent)

Geometry has a content that is both exact and very definite. The range of variations in the ratings of the history paper is indicated in the diagram given below.[2] Each dot represents a rating and is placed above the horizontal line which indicates a scale from 45 per cent to 95 per cent. Thus one rating was between 40 per cent and 45 per cent; three were 50 per cent; six were 70 per cent; twelve were over 75 per cent and not more than 79 per cent; though the highest two ratings were 90 per cent or over.

Tests were made to ascertain the changes in the judgment of the same teacher. A set of fifty papers was given to a number of teachers with the request that each of them rate the papers once a week without reference to their preceding judgments. The same teacher often showed variations in ratings of 10 to 15 per cent on the same paper at intervals of one week. A student's paper which received a passing grade, say 75 per cent, one week was rated deficient by 10 per cent, or even 15 per cent, six days later. Surely some device is necessary to standardize judgment and check serious fluctuations.

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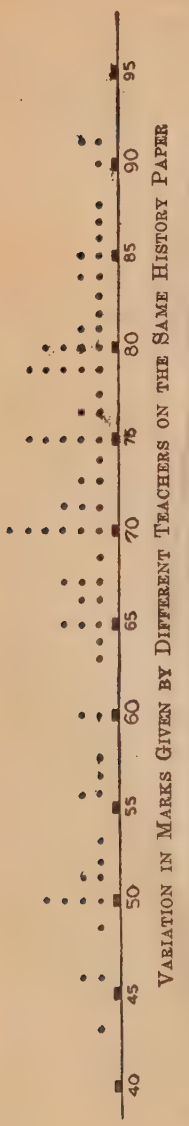
[1] Starch and Elliott, *School Review*, Vol. 21, pp. 254–259.
[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 676–681.



VARIATION IN MARKS GIVEN BY DIFFERENT TEACHERS ON THE SAME HISTORY PAPER

What Is a Standardized Test?

The experimental procedure which is followed in the development of a test makes it a standardized measuring medium. A standardized test is constructed, therefore, only as the following experimental practices obtain throughout its development.

1. The constituent questions are tried out on hundreds of pupils to discover which are too difficult, which too easy, and which of equal difficulty. At no step is a decision made on the basis of personal judgment.

2. The time allowance is determined after repeated trials with large numbers of pupils of similar mental age or in similar school grades.

3. The tests are administered uniformly; all children receive the same instructions, work from mimeographed or printed papers, and are allowed the same number of minutes. The scoring of the paper is, as far as is humanly possible, uniform.

4. All results are interpreted in the same way. All data are subjected to severely statistical treatment.

5. The norms set for a given grade or age are formulated on the basis of results obtained from large numbrs of children. Here, again, personal judgment is rigidly restricted.

A standarized test is scientific in its

inception and development. No step is taken for granted. Every doubt that arises is resolved by objective trial. In all cases where human judgment enters, as in rating answers, composite judgment always overrides individual opinion.

Examples of Standardized Tests

We shall now examine a few of the standardized tests in history and government in order to acquaint ourselves with their aims, distinctive organizations, and outstanding merits or defects.

Pressey and Richards' "Understanding of American History."[8]—This test consists of four parts, each containing twenty-six questions. The first part aims to measure the pupils' ability to judge character; the second, their historical vocabulary; the third, their knowledge of the sequence of events; and the fourth, their power to grasp cause and effect relationships. The first item in each part of the test is not counted; it is inserted as a practice exercise. A few illustrations will help the reader to visualize the whole test.

I. Character Judgment

The pupil is told to underline that adjective which best describes the person whose name appears at the beginning of the line in capital letters.

1. COLUMBUS: cowardly, proud, courageous, rich
2. WILLIAM PENN: tricky, hesitant, carefree, diplomatic
3. ROGER WILLIAMS: self-seeking, suspicious, fearless, bad
4. BENJAMIN FRANKLIN: emotional, retiring, prudent, blunt

25. THEODORE ROOSEVELT: thorough, unreliable, excitable, forceful.
26. HERBERT HOOVER: efficient, assertive, nervous, talkative.

[8] L. W. Pressey and C. R. Richards, *Understanding of American History* (Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.).

II. Historical Vocabulary

The pupil is told to underline that one of the four replies which will best answer the question.

1. What is a stockade?

A part of a gun	A supply of ammunition
A public punishment	A barrier for defense

2. What is dynasty?

A ruling family	An earthquake
An electrical appliance	A league of nations

11. Who were the Carpet Baggers?

Traveling salesmen	Negro freedmen
Southern whites	Northern adventurers

13. When is a foreigner naturalized?

Can speak English	When he enters a country
Is convicted of crime!	Is admitted to citizenship

III. Sequence of Events

The pupil is told to draw a line under the one event in each group of four events that "happened the longest time ago."

1. Discovery of the Pacific	Discovery of the Mississippi
Discovery of America	Discovery of the Hudson Bay
2. Conquest of Cortez	Voyage of Magellan
Expedition of Coronada	Voyages of John Cabot
6. Battle of Yorktown	Battle of Bunker Hill
Battle of Saratoga	Battle of Lexington
20. Dred Scott Decision	Wabash Decision
Dartmouth College Case	Mason and Slidell Case
25. Building of Panama Canal	Building of Roosevelt Dam
Building of Baltimore & Ohio Railroad	Building of Erie Canal

26. Entrance into the World War of Italy; Russia; U. S.; Japan

IV. Cause and Effect Relationships

The pupil is told that in each list are three events which were causes and one which was their effect. He is requested to underline the effect.

1. Religious persecution	Colonization of America
Desire for adventure	Desire for political independence
2. Revival of learning	Discovery of the Compass
Discovery of America	Voyages down the coast of Africa
15. Split in Democratic Party	Constitutional Union Party
Election of Lincoln	Freeport Doctrine
25. Anti-Saloon League	Prohibition Amendment
Progress and education	War Time Needs
26. Expense of Armament	Desire for permanent peace
Disarmament Conference	World War

For each correct answer one credit is allowed. The total number of credits earned constitutes the score. The author gives norms for the various grades.

Norms for Pressey and Richards Test

Grades	Test I	Test II	Test III	Test IV	Total, Tests I–IV
6	6	5	5	5	21
7	7	7	8	7	29
8	10	11	11	9	41
12	15	17	16	15	63

A sixth-grade pupil of average ability who in October scores 22 points (Part I, 6; Part II, 6; Part III, 5; Part IV, 5) is doing as well as can be expected of him. The teacher may regard this as a low score, but the fact remains that this pupil is doing as well as the average sixth-grade pupil in the country.

The Gregory Tests in American History.—There are three Gregory Tests: Test I for the seventh grade, Test II

for the eight grade, and Test III for grades from VIII to XII.[4] Each test is devised in two forms of equal difficulty so that seventh-grade children who have had Test I, Form A, in February, may be given Test I, Form B in June; the latter is, of course, made up of different questions. Each test consists of a number of parts. Thus Test I consists of Part 1, "Miscellaneous Facts and Dates"; Part 2, "European Backgrounds and the Period of Discovery and Exploration up to 1607"; Part 3, "The Period of Colonization"; Part 4, "The Period of the Revolution to 1789." Test II carries the history through the periods of national growth, sectional disputes, Civil War, reconstruction, and national development to 1900. Test III covers the whole field of American history in more condensed and advanced form.

Sample questions of the Gregory Test are here given.

PART 1.—MISCELLANEOUS FACTS AND DATES

	Write your words and dates here.
1. America was named after a Florentine merchant by the name of	1.
2. The man who headed the first expedition to circumnavigate the globe was	2.
6. Charles the First gave the right to own and govern Maryland to his friend	6.
20. America had her first printing press and free school in Massachusetts in the year	20.
23. When the War of 1812 broke out the President of the U. S. was	23.
40. The leader of the Federalist party was	40.

[4] Published and distributed by the Bureau of Administrative Research, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Parts 2, 3, and 4

The pupil is required to put a cross (X) on the dotted line before the reason that seems most nearly right.

Columbus made his first voyage across the Atlantic because
.... he believed he could discover a new continent.
.... he believed the earth was round and he could find a shorter route to India.
.... he wanted to secure the Indian trade for his native city, Genoa.

We should study the European background of American history because
.... we are of European descent and should honor the original home of our forefathers.
.... our customs, government, institutions, laws and religion are European in origin, and we should study this background to better understand our own institutions.
.... Europe sent out explorers and discoverers and founded a home for us.

Which of the following groups of events happened in 1619?
.... introduction of negro slavery,
.... importation of women to America,
.... first legislative assembly.

.... settlement of Georgia,
.... the landing of the Pilgrims,
.... the capture of Quebec.

.... English capture of New York,
.... the settlement of Jamestown,
.... the beheading of Charles I.

The Articles of Confederation were unsatisfactory because
.... they gave congress power to rule the colonies with an iron hand.
.... they gave congress the power to make laws but provided no way to enforce them.
.... they attempted to force the colonists to adopt a common religion and free schools.

The Holy Alliance was
.... a religious organization formed in Europe in 1822.
.... an agreement made by European rulers to prevent and check the growth of democracies.
.... an agreement made between certain European countries and the United States relative to the settlement of Central America.

The thirteenth amendment to the constitution made
.... the negro a voter.
.... the negro a free man.
.... the negro a citizen.

The Ku Klux Klan was
.... an organization of negroes led by carpet baggers to get control of the government.
.... a secret society or an "Invisible Empire" organized in Tennessee in 1868 to 1871 to frighten the negroes and prevent them from gaining control of the government.
.... a secret organization which originated in the South during the Civil War to smuggle goods into the South from England by way of Mexico.

The Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions
.... praised the Alien and Sedition Laws as great safeguards to American liberty.
.... declared the Alien and Sedition Laws unconstitutional and void.
.... declared that the right to hold slaves was a question to be settled by the states and not by the national government.

Congress declared war against Spain in 1898
.... because the Spaniards sank the battleship, Maine, which carried down with her over two hundred and fifty sailors and officers.
.... because Cuba wanted her independence and asked the United States to help get it.
.... because of the oppression and misrule of the Spaniards in Cuba which made a stable government impossible and life almost intolerable.

As a general policy the democratic party has always
.... stood for a high protective tariff.
.... stood for a tariff for revenue only.
.... been against tariff of any kind.

The Gregory Tests are carefully elaborated and can be readily administered. They strive to attain a reasonable balance between fact and interpretation. The device for scoring reduces the time and energy of marking papers to an absolute minimum.

The Van Wagenen American History Scales.[5]—These scales present a number of information tests for the different grades from the fifth through the twelfth. In addition a thought scale known as R2 is devised for grades VII and VIII. Samples are reproduced on pages 284–285.

A pupil's score is computed not as in other tests by adding the credit earned for right answers but rather by counting the number of errors and then consulting a table which gives the corresponding scale score. The author shows that the difference between scale score 68 and 75 is the same as between 88 and 95; he thus presents a measuring stick with units placed at equal distances. Comparisons can thus be made more readily. Norms are formulated for boys and girls in the fifth, sixth, seventh, and eight grades of New York and Minnesota. Thus, comparisons of pupils, of classes, or of schools are facilitated.

The Hahn History Scales.[6]—This is an ingenious attempt to arrange questions on a measuring stick with regular percentile intervals. In each column we find those exercises on which eighth-grade children received the same score. To illustrate: Column L might be selected for the test. The eighth-grade pupils would be asked to answer from four to ten questions selected from those listed under L. The average for the class in May should be 42 per cent. The numbers at the top of the columns in the graphs show

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[5] M. J. Van Wagenen, "American History Scales and Manual of Directions," Revised (Teachers College, Columbia University).

[6] H. H. Hahn, "The Hahn History Scales and a Scale for Measuring Ability of Children in History in Grades Seven and Eight" (Wayne State Normal School, Wayne, Nebraska).

VAN WAGENEN AMERICAN HISTORY SCALES

INFORMATION SCALE R1. GENERAL. GRADES 5 AND 6

Name _____ Sex _____ Grade _____
First Name Last Name

School _____ Date _____ Age _____
Yrs. Mos.

Directions

Begin with question 1 and answer as many of the questions as you can. Answer them in order. If you cannot answer all the parts of any question, answer as many of the parts as you can. Start.

GROUP I (Average value 58.5)

1. (54) Of the following things, put a check mark in front of those which the people of the United States had before the Civil War.

_____ Aeroplanes
_____ Railroads
_____ Steamboats
_____ Horses and wagons
_____ Automobiles

2. (55) What Frenchman helped us to win our independence?

3. (56) Put a check mark in front of each of these things which were in use during the Civil War.

_____ Submarine
_____ Poison gas
_____ Cavalry
_____ Ironclad war vessels
_____ Aeroplanes

4. (57) What were the first four European countries to make settlements in America?

1.
2.
3.
4.

5. (58) Put a check mark in front of each of these things which the Indians had before the white man came to America.

_____ Guns
_____ Maize
_____ Tobacco
_____ Whiskey or rum

6. (59) Of the following things, put a check mark in front of those which people did not have before the Civil War.

_____ Factories
_____ Newspapers
_____ Telephones
_____ Electric lights
_____ Trolley cars

7. (60) Which of these men lived during the colonial period? Put a check mark in front of them.

_____ Andrew Jackson
_____ William Penn
_____ Ulysses S. Grant
_____ Roger Williams
_____ Robert E. Lee

8. (61) Put a check mark in front of each of these things which have existed during the period since the Civil War.

_____ Machine production
_____ Frequent wars with the Indians
_____ Industrial strikes
_____ Dueling

9. (62) After each of the colonies below write which one of these men—William Bradford, Nathaniel Bacon, Peter Stuyvesant—is thought of with it.

a. New Amsterdam:
b. Massachusetts:
c. Virginia

10. (63) a. Which has increased more rapidly in wealth since the Civil War: the cities or the rural communities?

b. Which has increased more rapidly in population since the Civil War: the cities or the rural communities?

GROUP II (Average value 68.5)

11. (64) After each of these battles write the name of the war in which it was fought.

a. Yorktown:
b. Gettysburg:
c. Vicksburg:

12. (65) What were the two chief occupations of the Indian men?

1.
2.

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Bureau of Publications, Teachers College
New York City
1923

the number of classes; those at the bottom, the class scores.

The scale is inexpensive; one copy in the hands of the teacher is sufficient. It is planned comprehensively, basing its questions on the subject matter that six authors of

VAN WAGENEN AMERICAN HISTORY SCALES

THOUGHT SCALE R

DIVISION 2. GRADES 7 AND 8

Name _____ Sex _____ Grade _____
First Name Last Name

School _____ Date _____ Age _____ yrs. mos.

Directions

In each of the problems below you will find one or more short paragraphs giving you certain facts. Below the paragraphs are questions or statements telling you to do something.

This is not a test to see if you remember something which you have learned. Read the paragraphs carefully and from the facts given in them think out the answers to the problems for yourself. Begin with problem 1 and do as many as you can. Do them in order. If you cannot do all the parts of any problem do as many of the parts as you can. Start.

GROUP 1 (Average value 70)

1. (63) A hundred years ago it took a letter several days to go from New York to Boston. Today it takes only a few hours.
Why do you think it took letters so much longer to go from New York to Boston 100 years ago than it does today?

2. (65) In 1793, Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin, a machine for separating the cotton seed from the fiber. By the use of this machine one slave could clean fifty times as much cotton in a day as with the old machines or by hand.
What indirect effect would this invention have upon the price of cotton goods?

3. (67) The Northmen probably came to America as early as the year 1000, nearly 500 years before Columbus and the Cabots sailed from Europe. There is no record of any one else having come to America before the year 1000.
By whom do you think America was first discovered?

4. (70) In 1793, Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin, a machine for separating the cotton seed from the fiber. By the use of this machine one slave could clean fifty times as much cotton in a day as with the old machines or by hand.
What effect would this invention have upon the amount of cotton raised?

5. (71) It was not until about 1887 that electric power began to come into use. After 1887 there was a great increase in street railway building. In the cities of Massachusetts there were three times as many miles of street railways in 1897 as in 1887.
What was evidently one of the things to which this sudden rapid increase in street railway building was due?

6. (72) Previous to the War of 1776 an old vessel could be built at Gloucester or Salem in Massachusetts for twenty-four dollars per ton. Nowhere in England, France or Holland could a ship be made of oak for less than fifty dollars per ton.
Under such conditions what industry would get a firm hold in the American colonies?

7. (73) In 1773, Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin, a machine for separating the cotton seed from the fiber. By the use of this machine one slave could clean fifty times as much cotton in a day as with the old machines or by hand.
In 1790, 200,000 pounds of raw cotton were exported from the United States. In 1800, nearly 20,000,000 pounds of cotton were sent out of the United States.
What effect must the invention of the cotton gin have had upon slavery in the United States?

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New York City

modern textbooks treat in common. The norms enable a teacher to compare her class with each of forty-three other classes used in the construction of the scale. The author shows how to make his scale diagnostic by combining certain questions that call for verbal reproduction or questions that involve cause-and-effect relations or questions that test ability to relate the past to the present. Whether the scale will do effectively all that the authors promise, experience alone will tell.

SAMPLE OF THE HAHN HISTORY SCALE

K

34

23. Name two conditions in Europe which led to the settlement of America. (27)

40. In general how did England's treatment of her colonies change in 1763? (21)

48. Name four distinct religious sects in the American colonies. Why were many religious sects an advantage to America? (27)

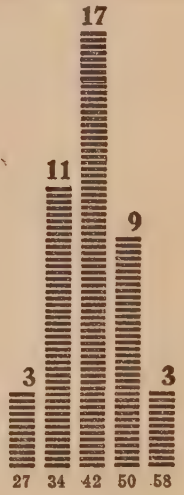
50. Name one occupation peculiar to the New England colonies; one to the middle colonies; one to the southern. (27)

58. Name a colony established by a proprietor; one by a trading company; one by voluntary efforts of the colonists. (34)

64. Upon what subject was the disputes between England and her American colonies most serious? (21)

L

42



10. How was the trade between European merchants and the Indies interrupted in 1453? (34)

11. Give two reasons why the finding of a new water route to Asia in the latter part of the 15th century was a difficult undertaking for Europeans. (34)

17. What event does each of the following dates call to mind: 1492 1513? 1519-1522? 1609? (34)

28. Give one reason why the English and Indians could not live together peaceably. (21)

36. Name three persecuted classes that came from Europe to America. Where did each settle? 42)

39. Why were there few towns in Virginia? (34)

41. What territory did the English gain at the close of the French and Indian War? (42)

42. Name one cause of the French-English struggle in America which ended in 1763. (34)

SAMPLE OF THE HAHN HISTORY SCALE—(*Continued*)

69. Name two important engagements of the Revolutionary War and give the results of each. (16)

89. What event does each of the following dates call to mind: 1776? 1765? 1775? 1781? 1783? (34)

90. Arrange the following events in the order of cause and effect: Stamp Act Congress; Repeal of Stamp Act; Non-importation Agreements; The Stamp Act; Defense of New Territory acquired from France in 1763. (21)

103. Name four men who took a leading part in the making of the Constitution of the United States. (21)

115. State two results of the Lewis and Clark expedition. (8)

122. Arrange the following events in the order of cause and effect: The Pendleton Bill; Assassination of President Garfield; "Spoils System"; Civil Service reform extended. (6)

123. Name two results of the War of 1812. (6)

140. Who was William Lloyd Garrison? (2)

166. Name four inventions that made "big business" possible. (16)

185. Give two results of the War with Mexico. (2)

194. Name two questions concerning which the North and the South quarreled and which finally caused the South to secede. (12)

201. Name two reasons why the South suffered more than the North in the Civil War. (12)

205. What hard question did the United States have to solve at the close of the Civil War? (6)

208. What aroused the ill-feeling of the South toward the Carpetbagger? (4)

218. Explain why free labor produces more farm products for the South than slave labor did. (12)

221. What are the two principal objects sought by most labor unions? (8)

267. Who has to pay an income tax? (12)

271. Name the Presidents of the United States since 1892. (16)

275. Name two important facts concerning the Red Cross Society. (16)

'53. Name one cause common to all wars between the English and the French colonists. (27)

54. What is the origin of Thanksgiving Day? (34)

68. What was the fundamental cause of the Revolutionary War? (27)

71. Name five men who were prominent in American history between 1763 and 1776. (34)

81. Name four acts of Parliament during colonial times which were the occasion of disputes with the American colonies. (42)

83. Why does not Canada declare her independence? (27)

88. Arrange the following events in the order of cause and effect: The Intolerable Acts of 1774; Boston Tea Party; The First Continental Congress; The Tea Tax. (34)

101. Name two ways in which Hamilton proposed to raise money to carry on the government. (12)

116. Name two causes of the War of 1812. (12)

176. Name five prominent men who took part in the slavery disputes during the period of 1829 to 1860. (16)

186. What is the difference between nullification and secession? (12)

196. Locate Richmond; Antietam; Gettysburg; Vicksburg. (16)

199. Explain why more than twice as many soldiers in the Civil War died from other causes than from being killed in battle. (16)

202. Name three ways in which the government obtained money to carry on the Civil War. (8)

257. How many members are there in the United States Senate? (12)

262. Give one important result of the laying of the Atlantic cable. (16)

266. Of what importance is the Panama Canal to the United States? (27)

274. What is the purpose or the Pure Food and Drug Act? (12)

279. Name a state in which the negro population outnumbers the white. (27)

281. Locate Verdun; Odessa; Arras; Petrograd; Amiens. (27)

Other Scales.—Among the scales that students will find interesting we may mention the following: "Harlan Test of Information in American History,"[7] "The Witham Comprehensive Seventh-Grade History Test,"[8] and "Background Tests in Social Science" by Kepner.[9]

Educational Uses of Standardized Scales

If we are to understand the full significance of standardized tests, we must deliberately, though tentatively, to be sure, take a sympathetic attitude towards them. Let us assume that all their remedial defects have been corrected. The values following their use would readily group themselves under two heads: pedagogic and administrative.

Pedagogic Values.—Standardized tests can do much for the pupil. They give him an exact measure of his progress. His teacher does not discourage him by expecting of him more than is reasonable nor does she permit him, if he be a superior pupil, to develop habits of indolence by accepting merely average work. If the norm for the grade is established as 65 by the standardized scale, the mediocre pupil who scores 62 is striving his utmost. He needs encouragement and recognition of his maximum effort. The pupil of superior mind who scores 68 can be shown that he is not measuring up to his ability. He must be held to account, and insistent, though sympathetic, pressure must be exerted upon him until there is a reasonable relation between his intelligence and his achievement.

Teachers find the standardized test helpful in many classroom situations. It gives them a measure of reason-

[7] C. L. Harlan, "Test of Information in American History" (Bureau of Coöperative Research, University of Minnesota).

[8] E. C. Witham, "Comprehensive Seventh-Grade History Test" (J. L. Hammett Co., Cambridge, Mass.).

[9] Tyler Kepner, "Background Test in Social Science" (Harvard University Press).

able expectation. Some teachers set too high a standard of class accomplishment. If the pupils do not reach the height expected of them, discouragement besets their teacher. What is needed is not an absolute standard of achievement determined by personal judgment but rather a relative standard formulated in the light of actual pupil performance. Many a discouraged teacher, when shown the norms for children of the age and school grade of her pupils, is heartened by the realization that she aimed unreasonably high. So, too, not a few complacent teachers, who seem satisfied with mediocre or poor class results which they accept uncritically, are quickened to greater effort by proof of what may justly be expected of their children.

Standardized tests give scores that are more reliable than can be secured with informal tests. On the basis of these more accurate scores, pupils can be classified for differentiated content and methods of teaching.

The pedagogic values of some standardized tests are heightened by their diagnostic functions. That test is diagnostic which tells the teacher which pupils are weak in knowledge of fundamental facts, which in power to grasp causal relation, and which in ability to extract thought from the printed page. On the basis of the weaknesses revealed, special remedial drills may be devised. Classroom practice thus proceeds on an approximately scientific basis, and teaching acquires a professional aspect.

Administrative Values.—Those charged with the supervision of schools may find standardized tests helpful means of substituting fact for mere opinion. With norms in various subjects properly derived, a principal or superintendent can compare his school or his school systems with other schools in similar communities. The norm acts as a corrective agent, indicating whether the administrator's standards are too high or too low.

A standardized test in history is the objective means of

judging the relative worth of a proposed method of teaching or a modification in the course of study. Let us assume that the question under discussion is the substitution of a project-problem course in history and civics for the logically developed course. Those in favor of the change argue that motivation is assured, hence children will learn the facts more effectively. They also argue that the natural situations will give a deeper insight into causal relations. The opponents deny these contentions and set up their defense for maintaining the existing course. To continue the debate is futile. Scientific practice demands that the proposed course be taught to one group of children and the present course to another, both groups having the same number and distribution of pupils. At the end of the grade's work, the same standardized test is given to both groups. Now scrutinize the results of the test on facts, on causal relations, on ability to interpret character, and on the vocabulary of history and civics. What differences are noted? Which group shows superior scores? Are there factors, other than the changed course and its accompanying socialized teaching, that can possibly account for the difference? Is the evidence sufficient to warrant the acceptance or the rejection of the proposed course or the continuation of the experiment? With definite data, these questions can be answered with some hope of reaching the truth.

In every school system teachers must be rated. Not a small factor in determining the relative worth of a teacher is the scholastic attainment of the pupils. Frequently a supervisor expresses displeasure at pupil results in history. The teacher insists that the pupils are doing acceptable work. Is there a conclusive reason for assuming that the supervisor's judgment is superior to the teacher's? Measure the results by a standardized test, and you have deduced objective evidence of the status of the pupils

in relation to other pupils of similar grade in other schools.

The use of standardized tests promotes a professional spirit in a school system. Teachers learn the futility of debate as a means of finding solutions to professional problems. They develop greater reliance on experimentation. Their whole attitude becomes more scientific. They become impatient with rule-of-thumb procedure that may have little more than the force of time to give it sanction and dignity.

Limitations of Standardized Tests in the Social Studies

Standardized tests have not proved as effective in history as in spelling, penmanship, arithmetic, reading, and formal language studies. We must now turn to the reasons for their ineffectiveness in the social studies, especially after our deliberately assumed sympathetic attitude towards their possible values in class and school work.

1. *The inexactness of the subject matter* of the social studies makes it difficult to develop a standardized test. Our early discussions revealed the inability of professional historians to agree on the meaning of history or its content. Under present conditions, a test in history, however scientifically constructed, must inevitably fail to test mastery of that subject matter which many educators think most vital. A commonly accepted content is a necessary preceding factor. Without this, no test will gain general acceptance.

2. *The newness of the standardized test* makes it a crude instrument. It is not fool-proof. It requires knowledge of statistics and experience in testing to interpret accurately the resulting data. Scores, however accurate, have little meaning for the untrained person. Moreover there are a great many teachers and principals who are still ignorant of the aims and the procedure of scientific testing. They lack faith in answers that require mere under-

lining or checking of statements. To them, no answer is significant that is not given in full sentences or paragraphs.

3. *The multiplicity of tests* militates against their general introduction. We need a respite from new tests so that existing ones may be tried out extensively in a variety of circumstances. Tests will be refined and their administration simplified only through experience. The practical schoolman is hesitant because the doctors cannot agree and keep on turning out new nostrums, not always without extravagant promises. Small wonder that skepticism prevails.

4. *An overemphasis* on memory facts decreases the value of most standardized tests in history. Too frequently the questions fail to challenge real thought. To ask a pupil to give two character traits of Roosevelt requires decidedly more thinking than to underline "that word which describes the man whose name is printed in capitals at the beginning of the line," thus

ROOSEVELT: thorough, unreliable, excitable, forceful.

The history we teach usually precludes undesirable traits in the character of our national heroes; hence, *unreliable* and *excitable* are qualities the pupil passes over. Although the test itself says that the correct answer is *forceful*, it must be admitted that Roosevelt was thorough, otherwise scientific bodies would not have commissioned him to make studies of large wild game. Similarly, the question, "When is a foreigner naturalized?" requires more positive and constructive mental activity than, "Underline that statement which answers the introducing question in the following exercise:

"When is a foreigner naturalized? When he enters the country. Can speak English. Is admitted to citizenship. Is convicted of crime."

True, the child must think to decide on the statement that answers the question, but relatively the thinking seems of a lower plane. The pupil is relieved from the effort of organizing his knowledge and giving adequate expression to it.

Standardized tests infrequently parallel the specific course of study that prevails in a given community. Very often a standardized test in history appeals to a specific group of school people, but the content of the test is taught in their schools, part in one year and part in another. Under the circumstances it is difficult to adjust the test to the knowledge status of the pupils. Many schools are constantly enriching the course in the social subjects. Here again is a factor that produces maladjustment and often makes a test inappropriate.

And finally, it is urged that the fundamental aim of the social studies is *to instill a social attitude of mind and to influence conduct.* The primary concern of a written test is, of necessity, *informational.* In the tool subjects—arithmetic, penmanship, spelling, reading—the standardized tests find their greatest possibilities because the answers are exact and the concern is essentially with facts and formal modes of thinking. But in those relatively inexact social-content studies that are designed to mold character and to influence social behavior, tests reveal the least significant aspect of the subjects.

Problems for Study and Discussion

1. Suggest six instances from history taught in the fourth and fifth years that may be tested by simple dramatization. List six other topics that may be tested by the creation of actual situations. List an equal number of topics from world history that may be tested by manual performance.

2. Formulate questions designed to determine the following:

(*a*) ability to make intelligent comparisons

(*b*) power to see underlying tendencies in an epoch

(*c*) ability to to find references on given problems
(*d*) ability to judge character
(*e*) ability to make inferences from a map

3. Formulate questions of the types called for in the table below. In each case limit the questions to the field of history indicated below:

Type of Question	Number of Questions	Field from Which Questions Should Be Taken
True—False.....	20	Settlement of Virginia
Completion.....	20	Causes of Revolutionary War
Multiple Choice.....	10	Great industrial inventions of the 19th century
Indicating Sequence..	10	The period 1789–1812
Matching.....	5	The period 1815–1860
Essay-Provoking Questions.....	3	Woodrow Wilson

4. Formulate a new-type test on two of the following topics:

(*a*) The Industrial Revolution
(*b*) The changes wrought by steam, steel, and electricity in the nineteenth century
(*c*) The rise and development of cities
(*d*) States' rights

Be sure to show, for each test, the number of parts, the value of each part and the credit for each question.

5. Judge the merit of each of the following statements often heard in discussion of new-type tests:

(*a*) "The true-false test leaves too much to chance."
(*b*) "Most of the questions in new-type tests are puzzles. These tests measure ability to solve puzzles rather than the control of historic data."
(*c*) "The old-style test can be devised more easily and tells just as much."
(*d*) "A new-type test does not, like the old examination question, test a pupil's ability to develop a line of thought."

6. Rate a set of tests in history, placing the grades on the reverse side of the papers. Rerate these papers a week later

allotting the same values to the various questions. What is the extent of the agreement or difference in the two sets of ratings.

7. List five respects in which a standard test in history is different from a new-type test formulated by the teacher. Name two respects in which the latter type test may serve a teacher's needs more effectively than the former type test.

8. Point out faults in the questions quoted from important standardized tests. In each case formulate an improved form of the question.

9. Show how a standardized test may achieve the following:

(*a*) Make a teacher's judgment less capricious.
(*b*) Set a standard of expectation which is just for each type of pupil.
(*c*) Save the teacher from undeserved discouragement or unwarranted complacency.
(*d*) Afford a basis for developing drills to meet special group needs.
(*e*) Give a measure of the worth of a new method or a new kind of course.

10. Have you used a standardized test in the last two years? Do you contemplate using one? Why? Do your colleagues use standardized tests in history? Do you believe that they would accept these tests graciously and assume their validity until experience gives exact data of their true worth? Why are teachers more hesitant about using standardized tests in history than in arithmetic or penmanship?

11. Explain the following statistical terms frequently used in the discussion of standardized tests: distribution; mean, median, mode; standard deviation; correlation.

12. Examine, carefully, a standardized test in history or the specimen questions taken from standardized tests and reproduced in Chapter XVII. To what extent is it true that the primary aim of standardized tests in history is very different from the primary aim in the teaching of history and other social studies? Justify your conclusions by specific references to these tests in history.

PART V

THE TEACHING OF CIVICS

CHAPTER XVIII

WHAT SHALL BE TAUGHT IN CIVICS

Teaching Pupils to Live Together

MODERN life is essentially an intricate network of interrelations and interdependencies. Trace the origin of a single necessary commodity and there is revealed at once an incredibly long list of unknown humans who have contributed directly and indirectly towards its creation. In our society each individual places in the hands of a legion of unseen strangers his property, his health, and his very life. He feels assured that they will be true to their trust. Our food is saved from contamination by a watchful army of workers who do not know us, the consumers. Let the milk inspector, through carelessness or dishonesty, sanction the sale of the product of a dairy that employs a typhoid carrier, and at once he takes more human life than was lost in a battle of old. He becomes guilty of indirect and long-range murder. Modern society is a real, organic being. Its growth depends upon the successful functioning of its highly differentiated but integrated agents. Effective living in society must therefore constitute the main concern of education. Civics is the school experience that strives most to make clear to the immature pupil the full significance of living together. It is therefore a grievous error to assume that children of native-born parents need civic education less than their immigrant schoolmates. Civics is more than the total facts that explain the struc-

ture of government. It is essentially the study of how to live in a highly socialized modern community.

Necessary Terms Defined

In the recent literature on the teaching of civics, various terms are employed without uniform connotation. We must attempt to give them a reasonably fixed meaning so that each will convey an intended idea rather than suggest a vague and varying notion.

The term *civics* is used to include all those experiences designed to instill an institutional sense and to train in social thinking which prompts social behavior. Civics is the total subject matter that seeks to develop true citizenship. It includes ethics, government, sociology, economics, hygiene and sanitation, governmental structure and function, in short, all the factors that influence conduct.

Citizenship is an attitude of mind which conditions correct living in an organized society. It refers to relations far wider and much deeper than the narrow political ones. Citizenship is a cumulative result of active participation in social living and of genuine sympathetic understanding of the structure of modern society. True citizenship expresses itself in domestic, social, vocational, political, and religious relations. It transcends the narrow confines of membership in a political state.

A *community* may have no geographic limits and usually has very little political significance. It refers rather to a group of people swayed by common interests and controlled by common customs or laws. A community may refer to a geographic division as large as a nation or as small as a town or a district in a large city. It may include all the people of a state or the handful that makes up a family. Its ties may be economic or social; its laws may be secular or religious.

Community civics is the study of all the relations which

an individual must maintain with his group. Health and vocation play a more emphatic rôle in community civics than the study of local government. Prevention of accidents, coöperation with social betterment agencies, and active participation in social activities form a vital part of the course. Civics aims to make good citizens; community civics, to make good neighbors.

Social studies is the generic term for all those curricular subjects that study human behavior in society. Under this title we group history, geography, sociology, sanitation, economics, politics, government, and psychology. These subjects may be highly integrated so that they form a series of social problems[1] or, on the other hand, each subject may retain its independent identity and present a single phase of life.

It is hoped that the succeeding discussion will give added illustrations of these basic terms. We shall use them in no unusual or specially technical sense.

Aims in the Teaching of Civics

Unless we formulate very definitely the aims to be achieved by the study of civics, we shall have no criteria by which to decide either the content of the course or the relative merits of various methods of teaching the subject.

The first purpose, perhaps the controlling one in the teaching of civics, is to give young people a sympathetic understanding of the countless social interdependencies essential in modern social life. The noisy and carefree life of youth must at certain times be interrupted by a serious consideration of the business of living together. Through the analysis of specific instances, these young citizens must be made to realize the inherent advantages of contemporary communal living. They must see an

[1] See the social-studies curriculum, pp. 171; 309.

ever widening circle of protecting agencies set up by society. They must be made to feel that human foresight led to the establishment of social machinery to safeguard them against assault, disease, fire, and starvation. Thousands of people are paid to look after their water supply, to clean their streets, to remove their garbage, and to protect them from the lawless. A benevolent force provides them with play spaces, swimming pools, elementary and high schools, and special schools that teach them remunerative trades. Surely, they owe something to their generous society. They must be convinced that they can repay, in a small measure, by their conduct in their homes, in their street, and in their games. They must not continue practices that spread disease or endanger life. They must show the spirit of good sportsmanship in their homes and in their games. They must strive to make life as livable for others as it is made by others for them. This attitude of social concern, this social-mindedness, is the chief aim of civic training.

A second and a distinctly subordinate aim of teaching civics is to acquaint pupils with the work of private and public social-welfare agencies. They must know where to apply for intelligent aid in the variety of problems that arises in a normal life. Where can they find companionship? What agencies offer recreational opportunities? Where may they be guided in the making of a vocational choice? Where may they be helped to find employment? What facilities does the community offer for developing the skills required in various trades? What agencies give them legal protection? To whom shall they make complaint when neighbors continue practices that endanger health or morals? Unless these agencies for social service are known, they are not capable of discharging their full benefits.

A third aim of civic education is to acquaint adolescent

pupils with the specific duties of political citizenship. Time must be set aside for systematic consideration of current events and for the discussion of questions of politics and of social welfare. Non-partisan debates and symposia must be arranged on the leading issues before local, state, and federal legislative bodies. The system of school discipline must include some form of pupil self-government in which children learn the power of the individual vote and the meaning of delegating a measure of one's own rights to an elected representative. It must ever be borne in on each juvenile citizen that he is individually responsible for the welfare of the school as a whole. Unless he watches the elected delegates in their work and takes an interest in their management of the playground and in their plans to keep the school clean, he is not a good citizen. Active participation is the first requisite of citizenship. We must begin early to quicken civic sense and develop an interest in civic welfare, lest we increase the vast hordes of citizens who are gradually disenfranchising themselves through neglectful disregard of their civic obligations.

And, finally, we teach civics so that our growing boys and girls may understand the structure of the government under which they live. Society has developed a great machine to safeguard life and liberty. With the increasing complexity of life the machine becomes more intricate. Intelligent civic participation presupposes a knowledge of the civic structure.

It is evident from our formulation of the aims of teaching civics that the emphasis must be placed on government function rather than structure. There is a parallel movement in hygiene to-day. No longer do we stress skeletal and anatomic study. We strive rather to make clear the function of the various parts and organs and teach only that much body structure which leads to the establishment

of a health habit. So, too, in civics, attention is focused on government function, and on the relation of governmental agencies to the individual. We teach only that in the skeleton of government which has a direct application to civic behavior. The final test of effective teaching of civics is not the quantity of information about government which the pupil has mastered, but rather the ability of the pupils to initiate simple civic projects, to plan their execution, to seek guidance in their difficulties and to carry them on to successful fulfillment.

The Content of the Course in Civics

Informational v. *Inspirational Civics.*—Much has been said of making civics teaching a means of developing an attitude of mind, a social consciousness, and a social conscience. All this is true, and he who fails to inspire in teaching human relations fails ignominiously. But this does not argue for a course that is deficient in definite information. Facts may appeal to emotions and carry the mind on to an irresistible conclusion. Attitudes of mind are not of spontaneous origin; they result from experience. Unless we teach real facts, we shall have affectations, not genuine attitudes. There is, therefore, a large body of very vital information that must be acquired by the pupil through some form of active participation in civic life. The course of study in civics must, therefore, be rich in content.

Correlation of Civil Government with History.—There are those who insist that government, either its structure or its form, should not be taught as a separate subject. The oft-mentioned Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association about twenty-five years ago recommended that civil government be taught in the course in American history in the senior year of the high school. The history of that year will give full setting for the discussion of such questions as tariff, foreign relations, bank-

ing, monetary legislation, civil service, government control of corporate organizations, the control of railroads, conservation of national resources, guarding against disease at the ports of entrance, immigration control, regulation of conditions of labor, relation between capital and labor, state *v.* federal control, military preparedness, organization of state and federal government—in a word, the essence of what is necessary for intelligent reaction to the issues of the day. True, the pupil does not acquire a logically organized outline of the corresponding branches of state and national government, but there is compensation in acquiring information with its natural background and through a motivating problem that gives the mind its set.

The College Entrance Examination Board in November, 1922, received a report from a commission it appointed to revise the history and civics requirements. The recommendation read in part:

> The Commission was unanimous in its opinion that the separate examination paper in civil government . . . for college entrance should be omitted. . . . It was not wise to encourage the study of civics in high schools apart from the history instruction.

The reasons for the position may be summed up briefly. First, there is economy of time in teaching together subjects that are intimately related. Second, government, when considered apart from history, is abstract and appeals rather to the mature student of political theory. And, third, American government is an outgrowth of American history, and the two must be fused into a single study.

This brief presents arguments that will not bear critical analysis. It does not follow that because government develops with the progress of events that history and civics must be taught as a single subject. The fallacy of *non*

sequitur is easily recognized. The subject of government is of vital significance and can stand on its own feet. Like all other subjects, it gains in meaning as it is associated with related knowledge. Experience shows that where the two subjects are fused, government receives only incidental attention. Then, too, the government taught through history is genetic; it reveals stages in the development of certain federal and state powers, but it does not reveal the actual operations of the great governmental machine on an important question of the day.

But back of the controversy the reader must not fail to perceive that the civics to which reference is made by objectors is not the dynamic social study that we agreed was vital to growing youth but rather the analysis of the structure of government. The real question is not whether civics be taught as a separate subject but rather whether a curriculum should be made up of artificially specialized and comparatively unrelated divisions of knowledge. If education is to be a preparation for living by participation in life, then the social studies should be presented through a graded series of living social problems of the day. Is the Fordney-McCumber Tariff or the building of the Panama Canal a social or an economic or a civic or an historic fact? Why do our courses of study strive so ardently to maintain an isolation nonexistent in life itself?

The Organization of Courses of Study in Civics.—Most courses of study present the subject of civics in three cycles. The first includes the work of the first four years; the second, that of the fifth and sixth years or grades; the third, that of the seventh, eighth, and ninth years, the grades of the junior high school. Each cycle has its own central theme, its own distinctive aim, and its own pertinent content.

The Civics of the First Four Years.—Not government, but the relation of the individual to his family, school, and

local community is studied in this introductory cycle. The outstanding topics discussed include the following:

The Family. Relation among its members; financial support; respect and reverence prompted by sense of gratitude.

The Home. How maintained; the basis of mutual trust and help; cleanliness and how maintained through coöperative effort; regularity of habits of eating, sleeping, working, playing as aid in maintaining home routine; the aesthetics of the home and how best secured; safety in the home.

The School. Social reasons that make necessary school regulations; safety and health measures of the school maintained through coöperative efforts; school support and the attitude of individual responsibility for school property; facilities offered by local school system.

The Street. Safety on highways, how best secured; cleanliness the result of coöperative effort; care of trees and lawns.

The Neighborhood. Pride in appearance and safety; the character of neighborhood; number of people; kind of activities; noted buildings; recreational opportunities; parks and their care.

Sports and Sportsmanship. Variety of games; games inappropriate in certain seasons and places; sportsmanship, and its extension to all human relations.

The Outstanding Departments of Local Government. A consideration of the departments of health, fire, police, parks, under such questions as "Why are they necessary?" and "How can we help each department?"

Under these topics we find marshaled a variety of information that may be labeled as ethical, hygienic, geographic, arithmetical, linguistic, governmental; the main ingredients, however, are ethical and hygienic. Those who think of civics in terms of civil government will find little of the traditional data included. Civics is to-day a subject of generous proportions with elastic limits that encompass any set of facts or activities that teach children how to live.

The Civics of the Fifth and Sixth Years.—In the intermediate two years, civics that is a little more formal and informational is introduced. The nature of the subject

matter that is taught can be seen from the following list of typical assignments:

CITY OR LOCAL GOVERNMENT AS IT AFFECTS THE INDIVIDUAL AND THE HOME

Foods. Kinds; markets; source of various foods; modes of shipment; how received by the locality; the inspection of foods; prescription for its care by the seller; who pays for the inspection and protection of foods; reciprocal duties of the citizen.

Water. Sources; how brought to locality; how brought to faucet in the home; importance of purity; how safeguarded; who pays for water and for protecting service; reciprocal duties of the citizen.

Housing. The departments concerned with housing (building, tenement, fire, etc.); what does the law prescribe for heat, light, ventilation, fireproofing; public utilities—gas, electricity, water, telephone, and their control by the community; duties of the citizen.

Health Activities. Street cleaning and garbage disposal; health department and its manifold duties; disease and social consequences of personal carelessness; public clinics and hospitals; recreational facilities and the public parks; reciprocal duties of the citizen.

Protection of Life and Property. The fire and police departments; traffic regulation.

THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT

A simple study of the organization of local government; the names of the chief officers and their departments; classification into elected and appointed offices; a few of the important duties of each of these departments; public interest and watchfulness; reciprocal duties of the citizen.

THE EVIDENCE OF STATE AND FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

Need for larger control by state and nation; evidences of federal government; army, navy, post office, custom house, federal courts, immigrant bureaus and naturalization centers; evidences of state government; militia, control of certain banks, state highways, health and quarantine stations; chief officers of each; President and his cabinet, governor and state officials; the legislative

bodies of federal and state government; the need of coöperative activity between the two forms of government.

The Content of the Civics of the Junior High School, Grades VII–IX.—In outlining the scope of the social studies in the junior high school, we presented a definite program in civics and its most intimately related subject, ethics and health. The tentative course can readily be reviewed here in outline form.

TENTATIVE COURSE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL CIVICS

Year	Government	Related Ethics	Related Health Studies
VII	Origin of government; need of and manifold functions of government.	Multiplicity of questions arising from the relation of individual to larger society of state and nation.	A contrast of old and new beliefs and practices in matter of public health and sanitation.
VIII	Analysis of federal and state government. Comparison with selected foreign governments.	An analysis of national and racial loyalties. Race questions and attitude towards other nations.	How a nation safeguards the health of its citizens. Federal and state health activities.
IX	*A.* Study of local government or community civics. *B.* Vocational civics.	Relations in economic life; ethics of business.	Recreation and vocational hygiene.

It is not our purpose to present a detailed syllabus for each of these grades. Excellent texts have been produced in civics and sanitation that suggest rich stores of information. Much invaluable aid may be obtained by careful reading of the course of study in civics published by the school authorities of New York State, the City of New

York, the City of Stamford, Conn., Philadelphia, and Indianapolis.

Scope of Community Civics.—Most school systems prescribe a detailed study of community civics for the ninth year, some devoting the whole year, others only a semester. The following plan may serve as a helpful guide to what is worth including:

I. Community Activities that Make for Social and Spiritual Well-Being
   (*a*) Education
   (*b*) Civic beauty
   (*d*) Adequate communication
   (*d*) Corrective agencies
II. Community Activities that Make for Physical Well-Being
   (*a*) Health
   (*b*) Protection from every type of accident
   (*c*) Recreation
   (*d*) Charities
III. Community Activities that Make for Economic Well-Being
   (*a*) Protection of property from dishonesty and destruction
   (*b*) Organization of industry and commerce
   (*c*) Transportation and communication
   (*d*) Migration

Each of these activities may be studied through such questions as:

1. What is its community service?
2. How is it conducted?
3. Is it public or private?
4. How is it financed?
5. What are the reciprocal duties of each citizen?[2]

The Course in Vocational Civics.—Since most of our school population will not continue formal education be-

[2] Compare with plan suggested in "The Teaching of Community Civics, United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 23 (1915). Also in "Social Studies in Secondary Education," United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 28 (1916), p. 23.

yond the ninth year, the course in civics must help them find themselves in the world of industry or commerce. These boys and girls must be led to understand the full significance of making a vocational choice, the controlling choice, perhaps, of a lifetime. They must be guided in making a vocational analysis: what is a good vocation, what does a chosen vocation require, how can one ascertain his fitness for this vocation, where can one be properly trained. This knowledge must be supplemented by the legal conditions governing continued school attendance and the obtaining of employment certificates.

No youngster is qualified to make a vocational choice unless he has studied a number of trades and occupations. He must consider the variety of vocational activities in the fields of commerce, domestic work, agriculture, industry, railroading, civil service—the endless forms of employment offered by a modern society. Without the horizon which such a study reveals, the young worker fails to find his opportunity. Where will these boys and girls obtain this information in a compact, systematic, and reliable form if not in the school? Here is a vital phase of ninth-year civics.

The Philadelphia and the Indianapolis Plans in Civic Education.—Two cities have made noteworthy developments in civic education. Their programs have been copied by many communities throughout the country.

The Philadelphia Plan endeavors to make all the work in civics as continuous and cumulative as the work in English or mathematics. Throughout the school course regular periods are devoted to a study of social situations, to problems of living together. The course stresses successively in its development morals and manners, community coöperation, vocational coöperation, community civics, and, finally, in Grade XII, the problem of democracy. Civics is therefore a separate subject made up of all that

can be extracted from other subjects that deal with communal relations.

Under the Indianapolis Plan, civics is not taught as a separate subject until the eighth year. In the first seven years the attempt is to make civics a process of living rather than an intellectual analysis of a social situation. Every subject and every school situation is regarded as a potential opportunity for participation in civic life. "Civics is a training in the habits of good citizenship." Not only are geography and history made to yield civic situations, but even arithmetic makes its contribution towards this end. Children compute the costs of land, home building, home furnishing, maintaining a family, building a school or a park. Each department of government yields material that is used not only to develop skill in number manipulation but also to give a "civic insight." In the eighth grade an organic conception of government is developed.

We have discussed the merits of separate and correlated courses at length. At this stage of our study, therefore, it is not necessary to submit these two plans to an analysis of their relative points of strength and weakness.[3] Both courses have been greatly overpraised. The courses in civics in the schools of the cities of New York and Stamford, Conn., and in some of the experimental schools like the Lincoln School of Teachers College, are worthy of as much praise as the two mentioned above, which are so often regarded as the high points in civic education in the United States.

Problems for Study and Discussion

The reader is referred to the end of Chapter XIX, page 326, for a list of problems.

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[3] See pp. 174–181.

CHAPTER XIX

METHODS OF TEACHING CIVICS

A Suggested Procedure

THE report on "Social Studies in Secondary Education" suggests that "an element in welfare" may be taught by three steps.[1] The first is the *approach to the topic.* Pupils must realize fully the significance to themselves and their community of the social or governmental agency about to be studied in detail. "Much depends upon the method of approach. The planning of an approach to a given topic and its application to a given class call for ingenuity and resourcefulness."

Investigation of the agency is naturally the second step. First-hand observations are supplemented by information gleaned from printed and graphic sources and from the teacher. It is not intended that all pupils make equally intensive studies of all the civic agencies. Special problems and topics are assigned to different groups or committees. Although the class as a whole is audience on the occasions when the members of a committee present their discussion, all pupils are not assigned to do the same detailed reading. This differentiation in assignment saves pupils from gathering superficial facts about a multitude of civic factors and encourages thoroughness of study.

[1] "Report on Social Studies in Secondary Education," United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 28 (1916), pp. 24, 25.

The third step is the *recognition of reciprocal duties.* If the work of the preceding steps has been effectively done, there is likely to arise in the minds of pupils a desire to carry out a duty that is clearly understood. The development of this sense of social reaction, of social responsibility, is the measure of satisfactory teaching in civic education.

Although these three steps are suggested for teaching "a welfare element" in community civics, teachers will readily recognize that a procedure has been given them that is applicable to many and varied topics in the general field of civics.

Modes of Approach

Well begun is almost all done in teaching. Approach the lesson effectively, and you have set a real aim before the class. Each pupil is prompted to take an active part in the pursuit of the goal. The whole introductory situation is, therefore, motivated, and the class is given a correct mind set.

In the interests of proper approach, *stress the pupil's present not his future relationship to his community.* Even responsible adults who usually scan with concern the needs of to-morrow discount the future very liberally. A young pupil gives time and energy reluctantly to a relationship which he will probably not meet until his more mature years. Show him what sacrifices the family makes for him to-day, what obligations he incurs now, and then elicit in the discussion, the various means at his immediate command for helping his father and mother. Make young pupils understand the endless provisions which the board of health is continually making for them, and then guide them in formulating a list of ways in which ten-year-old citizens can help this department of local government. Do not let

the class escape with the comforting thought, "We shall be good citizens when we grow up." Civic education is essentially a process of inculcating civic habits. Habits are acquired not through resolution but through vigorous and repeated action in the present.

There are other modes of approach. *Current events often present a happy introduction.* An excursion steamer passed by a careless inspector proves to be unseaworthy. She sinks and hundreds of lives are lost. A small and seemingly inconsequential fire becomes a menacing conflagration because rotting rubber hose was accepted by an incompetent official. Typhoid breaks out in a community because an indolent supervisor of a public reservation did not have all the water tested before the opening of the camping season. Heavy snows cripple the traffic in a city because its overseers failed to provide the funds for the purchase of suitable apparatus. Three popular men are nominated for the presidency. Many believe two of them will score an equal number of votes. How will the election be decided? The legislature passes an act which the governor refuses to sign. What happens to the will of the legislators? These are typical of hundreds of situations revealed by the daily press. Each serves as a motivating approach to a lesson.

The presentation of a genuine problem or a project may serve as an effective reason for opening up a new field of inquiry. The people of a given locality are convinced of the absolute necessity of additional schools or a park. What can they do as sovereign citizens? What facts must they gather? To whom shall they present the data? Who has the final authority in directing the extension of school and park facilities? Who will pay for these improvements? How will the money be secured? How will the cost be allocated? Lessons in arithmetic, oral and written com-

position, local geography, and civics are combined in the hope of working out a successful solution to the project and its many problems.

Systematize What the Children Know

It is an error to suppose that children bring no information of civic matters to the class. Normal-minded boys and girls cannot escape the social experiences of a modern society. Tests will reveal that they possess no insignificant amount of civic information that is unorganized and shot through with misconceptions. As a lesson proceeds, we must lead pupils to perceive first, that they have some of the facts; second, that they need further and more accurate information; third, that they must act upon the knowledge they acquire.

In teaching a phase of government that functions directly in the lives of pupils, it may be well to follow a plan similar in vital respects to the procedure in the lesson on the board of health, described in the succeeding pages.

An unusual number of cases of smallpox was reported to the local board of health. At once orders were issued to vaccinate all school children who had not been vaccinated within six years. The newspapers urged all adults not recently vaccinated to be vaccinated either by the family physician or at the municipal health stations. Vaccinations were ordered for all patients in city institutions. Rigid quarantine was established at the homes where illness occurred and not a few of the patients were arbitrarily removed to the city quarantine hospital. Here was the occasion which served as an approach.

The teacher brought the situation to a head by asking whether it was right for the community, the city, to force vaccination on unwilling people and to take unto itself the right of removal to quarantine hospitals? What departments must be given such unusual powers?

The remainder of the lesson was taken up under five questions which are here given together with the answers formulated in class.

The Teacher's Questions	*The Answers Formulated Coöperatively*
1. What evidence have we that this city has a Board of Health?	1. (*a*) The orders to vaccinate (*b*) The establishment of quarantine in homes (*c*) Placards on doors warning people of contagious diseases (*d*) Health stations in various parts of the city (*e*) Health stations in certain drug stores where specimens may be left for examination (*f*) Signs in cars and in public places warning against expectoration (*g*) The list of names and addresses where there is contagious disease in schools every day (*h*) Baby milk stations
2. Why do we need a Board of Health?	2. (*a*) To protect us against contagious diseases (*b*) To inspect food (*c*) To give medical help to all who need it (*d*) To publish health guides (*e*) To receive complaints from citizens
3. What does the Board of Health do for us?	3. (*a*) Prevents ill health by (1) investigating complaint (2) inspecting houses, food, water (*b*) Cures the sick at its dispensaries and hospitals (*c*) Makes health laws about vaccination, contagious diseases, etc.
4. How can we help the Board of	4. (*a*) Obey its rules: do not expectorate in public places; do not cough or

The Teacher's Questions	*The Answers Formulated Coöperatively*
Health in its work?	sneeze without using a handkerchief; do not shake mops out of windows; do not throw garbage into streets, etc. (*b*) Report cases of contagious disease or violation of the health laws (*c*) Take care of oneself: right habits of cleanliness, sleeping, eating, and outdoor playing
5. Where can we find out more about the work of the Board of Health?	5. (*a*) Newspapers (*b*) Write to Board of Health (*c*) Obtain pamphlets given to citizens by visiting the Board of Health

These five questions do not touch on the organization of the bureau, its appointed officers, salaries, and the multitude of administrative details that have no interest for young people and very little for adults. This is a lesson that stresses functional civics. In the final analysis, hardly a fact was included that no child knew. The lesson sought to systematize and refine the ideas of the pupils rather than to add much to their present possessions.

Dramatization in Civics Teaching

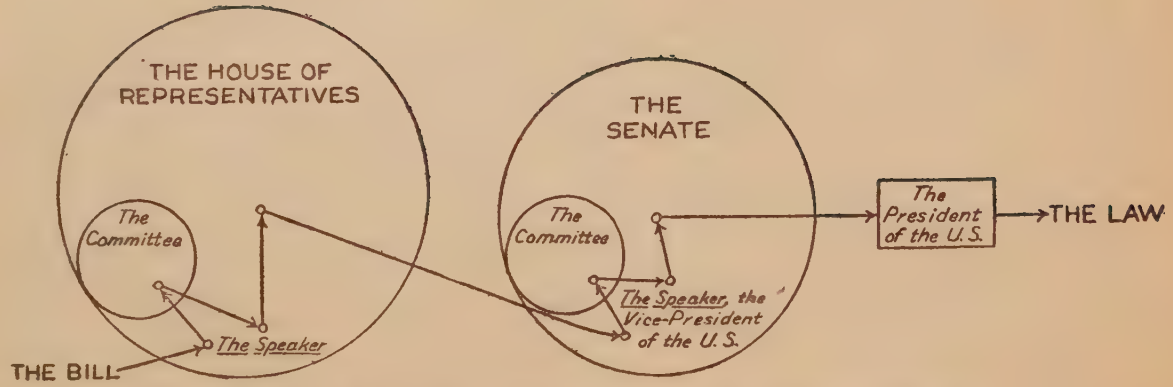
So many new relationships are presented in the round of civics lessons that it is well to make them clear by simple dramatizations in which children may live through these situations. In teaching how a bill becomes a federal law, the class becomes the Congress and is divided into the House of Representatives and the Senate. A simple bill is presented by a representative and by a senator. Each bill is referred to its appropriate committee. These committees are appropriately appointed and actually hold

public meetings at which advocates and opponents of the measure plead their respective causes. The committee debates are concluded and the measure, if passed, is sent to the house. There the bill is traced through the "three readings," the debate on the floor, the recommitment to the committee, and on to its final passage. Step by step the class reproduces the stages in the life of the bill until it reaches the President. Only as children participate in the procedure and actually reproduce it do they understand it.

To present a diagram of circles and arrows only adds helplessness to confusion. In the following diagram, each element is a symbol that conveys meaning only to the initiated. A symbol that does not symbolize only obscures the meaning. After the dramatization of the topic, the diagram acts as an intelligent summary because, now, every part of it is a symbol that represents a specific act previously performed by the class.

By similar procedure, we may teach the organization of the city government. The mayor, the comptroller, and the other elected officials take their places and carry on a simple form of city business. The board of aldermen meets at the other end of the room to discharge its duties. Here again, the child learns because he acts.

Teachers and principals may organize a school department of health, the class representatives of which inspect books, desks, hallways, and lavatories to see that proper standards of cleanliness are maintained. A school department of pupil officers may be made responsible for orderly dismissals, assemblies, and proper conduct in the playground. The immigration department of a certain school meets to discuss ways of making new pupils welcome. It has a set of practices which are carried out by each class representative immediately upon the admission of a new pupil. Some one "shows the newcomer the ropes," the



THE PROGRESS OF A BILL THROUGH CONGRESS GRAPHICALLY REPRESENTED

established routine of his class and of the school. He is introduced to playmates and is treated with exceptional consideration during his first week. All these forms of dramatizations help to enable pupils to identify themselves with some phase of the problem of living together.

Civic Participation

More elaborate forms of participation in civic relationship may be achieved than were just explained. Such opportunities are offered by the organization of:

A junior civic league
A safety patrol
A junior Red Cross
A Boy Scout troop
A humane society
A pupils' self-government plan or a junior republic

It must be remembered that in all these plans of pupil participation, children learn very few facts. They do acquire, however, an insight into the need of government and a social attitude that makes for responsible conduct. The child who is an active member of a well supervised club learns to think and to act with others, he realizes the advantages of membership in the group and becomes impatient with those who thwart the group intent. So, too, membership in junior civic leagues or Boy Scout troops gives certain definite and extremely social habits of mind that make for socialized conduct.

The Use of the Book in the Teaching of Civics

In civics teaching one usually finds two extreme practices in the use of books; either the pages are read *seriatim*, and the text becomes the beginning and the end of the course, or, no book is ever used throughout the school grades. The book in civics can serve no important function in the first four years. The work is too informal, too conversational,

and too personal to profit by the printed text. Children in these introductory years are still learning to read. Not until they read to learn will the book serve a really significant purpose.

In the fifth and sixth years books in civics may be introduced. In the junior high school, they should be used as frequently as textbooks in history. We must, therefore, sum up the variety of uses of the book in civics.

1. The textbook may serve as a source of new material. In the informal discussion various questions arise: Who pays for the schools? Who decides when to build a new school? How is the money secured? The child must be taught in all subjects to regard his book not as a holy text to be memorized but rather as a convenient compilation of ready information to be used as need arises.

2. Very frequently the class text may give useful and interesting supplementary information on a subject of civics that was introduced by the teacher. In the period devoted to current events the discussion centered around the treaty with a friendly nation. The textbook in civics describes the treaty-making process, the part played by the Secretary of State, by the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, by the chairman of this committee, and by the President of the United States. In the silent reading period, this text was assigned and the teacher's questions were concerned with the content which supplemented the preceding lesson.

3. The class text in civics may render very valuable aid in organizing data. The discussion may have been rich in ideas, but many loose threads may be left dangling. The book is opened and a moment's inspection shows that by his paragraph headings the author gives an exposition of the same subject in a very logical arrangement. Here is real help. The organization suggested by the text is adopted and used by the pupils.

4. In some instances the book may give only a short but compact summary of a long discussion that took two class periods. What the book offers is analyzed, and class and teacher agree that it would be futile to try to improve on a summary that is at once so simple and so pithy. Here then is material that is worth studying and saves the time that would otherwise be spent in developing an outline that synopsizes the class lessons.

5. In the advanced grades in the junior high school years, the book may be used to give an enriched interpretation of a principle or practice of civic life. The question "Can we dictate to a person how long she may work?" arose in connection with pending social legislation that sought to prohibit the employment of women for more than eight hours a day. The class debate was spirited and drifted, by the middle of the lesson, toward the conclusion, "The state can do anything to protect the health of mothers and children."

The teacher then suggested that it might be well to see whether "our author raises this question and what position he takes." The class agreed and turned to the appropriate chapter. There they found an interesting story of child labor in mines and mills of England, the old laissez faire policy, the humanitarian protest, and the adoption of the new policy of governmental interference in those situations in which the individual, though free, has no choice but is overwhelmed by the force of circumstances. The author explained that certain laws require protecting structures to surround dangerous machinery and told of those who feared governmental paternalism and opposed this legislation by arguing: "Those who do not want to work in shops that have no machine guards, needn't; they are free men and women." He then showed that if all employers failed to protect their employees, then the workers, who must work, would have the choice of enforced idleness or

daily endangering life and limb. Although the class came to no new final conclusion, they had a richer grasp of fundamental issues and experienced the force of a genuine conviction.

6. Illustrative aids are as necessary in civics as in history. The child is often taken far from his immediate environment. To understand life and relationships that are new, pictures, models, and diagrams are necessary. Many civic situations are more eye than ear experiences. Among the illustrative aids which the book may contain are pictures of condemned and approved courtyards and tenements, pictures of machine guards, graphs showing the trend of immigration, pictures of types of immigrants, maps showing the redistribution of population, pictures of legislative bodies in session—a veritable host of opportunities for visual appeals in the interest of deeper comprehension.

Source Material in Teaching Civics

Much interesting original material may be conveniently and profitably introduced in the teaching of civics. Reports issued by local, state, and federal departments are rich in information that is accurate and timely. Private welfare agencies often publish health or vocational-guidance pamphlets that make worth-while contributions to these subjects. Models and plans of local improvements, bridges, parks, public buildings, can frequently be borrowed. Stereoptican slides and films on city planning, child labor, improved living conditions, care of food, water supply, traffic safety, and fire prevention are often cheerfully sent to schools by public agencies or private corporations.

Trips, properly and carefully planned, are usually stimulating experiences. As in history teaching, so in civics, these excursions must be undertaken in response to a need

that arises in the class lesson; every pupil must know why the trip is made, and what he must try to learn from it. After the return to class, the results of the visit must be summarized and related to the situation that prompted the expedition. At all times the pupil must be impressed with the fact that visiting places of civic interest is not a class picnic but another mode of learning.

Unreasonable Expectations from Civic Education

Much can be achieved by a wise program of civic education administered by competent and sympathetic teachers and principals. But under the most auspicious circumstances civic attitudes and civic-mindedness are resultants of a complex of social and economic forces, generally beyond the control of the school. The congestion of the city, the absence of play space, the ignorance of some parents, the grinding force of poverty, the unreasonable exactions of some families, the inflexibility of certain school courses —all these and a multitude of equally powerful forces play a more determining part in molding the civic character of the child than our feeble efforts in civic teaching. The introductory discussion in this chapter may absolve us from the indictment of lacking faith in the teaching of civics. To believe in the effectiveness of a school subject is no warrant for living in a fool's paradise. We must not delude ourselves that civics, properly taught, assures highly social reactions.

In every act of civic participation attention of the class must be focused on the social motive. Children must be shown how they can apply civic conduct in school to the home and the community. We may reasonably look for some evidence of transfer of civic consciousness to new relationships, but surely neither the psychology of children nor our experience with them gives ground for assurance of complete social regeneration.

Problems for Study and Discussion

1. There are educators who would excuse some children such as native born and those born of intelligent parents, from studying civics and would concentrate on others, particularly foreign-born children. What is the conception of the function of civics held by such educators? How does it differ from the one suggested in the text? What is your own position?

2. What similarities do you find between the evolutionary and institutional conception of history on the one hand and the conception of civics as developed in Chapters XVIII and XIX on the other?

3. Do you know of any textbook whose conception of civics is less inclusive than the one assumed in the text? Explain the differences in attitude towards civics and evaluate them.

Is there a similar difference of opinion as to the meaning of history, of economics, of sociology, of geography, of mathematics?

4. Why has civics so long been an adjunct of history? Does the growing emphasis on civics in current education imply a broader conception of its meaning, content, and purpose? Explain fully and justify your answer.

5. Develop a project, taking as your central theme the child's debt to society. Plan a play, suitable for a school assembly, on this theme.

6. Analyze a commonly used textbook in civics. Ascertain the space in it allotted to governmental structure; to governmental function; to the rights, duties, and functions of citizenship; to social-welfare agencies; to socializing forces in society, etc.

Does the text reveal undue emphasis on governmental structure? If so, why?

7. Construct syllabus material on the "structure and function of government" suitable for the sixth year; repeat the task for the junior high school.

Are the differences you introduce designed to add more detailed facts or to achieve directness of approach?

8. Formulate syllabus material for a course in Vocational Civics. Work out five or six topics.

9. Consult a course of study in the various school subjects and outline what civic situations you would select from each of

the following: geography, arithmetic, history, composition, drawing, hygiene.

10. Should the approach to the topics of civics be provided by the textbook or be left to the individual teacher? Give reasons for your answer.

List a number of effective motivated approaches to the topic "Foods" for a fifth grade.

11. Is it good teaching procedure in civics to lead the pupils to a realization that they know part of what is to be taught? Will not this practice detract from the interest? Why?

12. Some teachers argue that it is wise to enter upon the dramatization of the enactment of a bill into law without previously preparing the pupils for it. State your position. How would you prepare a class for such dramatization?

13. Would you make the dramatization merely a means of motivation or a summary, or would you attempt to teach new facts by this process? Justify your answer.

14. List a series of problems designed to help you teach "The Police Department in City Government." What use would you plan to make of the class text in the development of these problems?

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